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ABSTRACT

In addition to the presidential address and the general session address (concerning barriers to communication and how they relate the physical education), the proceedings contain speeches in the areas of (1) research, (2) sport and leisure, and (3) professional preparation. Some of these include presentations on (1) contributions to thought on physical education by selected contemporary educational philosophers, (2) women in sports, (3) sport violence, and (4) educational programs in athletic training. Also presented in the proceedings are the president's report, financial reports, minutes from the last meeting, and reports from the standing committees, the president's committees, and the joint committees. Lists of NCPEAM members, committee members, and officers are included, along with the NCPEAM constitution and by-laws. (Author)

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PROCEEDINGS
78TH ANNUAL MEETING
JANUARY 9-12, 1975
PHOENIX, ARIZONA

NATIONAL COLLEGE PHYSICAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION FOR MEN

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Our Father, not only in heaven but with us wherever we are and whatever we are doing, we thank you for your presence with us today and your deep concern for each of us. In our more rational moments we recognize how much we need you, how incomplete we are as educators and persons without your divine guidance. We thank you for your infinite patience with us, for your ever continuing desire for an intimate relationship with us in spite of our frequent and complete rejections of you. Please help us to make better use of the unlimited power for good that is so easily available to us through you. You well know the tremendous challenges we face in our chosen profession. Help us, we pray, Father, help us meet the needs of our students, improve our relationships with our colleagues and our administrators, maintain the necessary close affinity to our families, and still be the persons you intended us to be.

We thank you for this opportunity to gather together and to learn more about our profession, one another, and ourselves. Finally, we thank you for this food you have provided. May it sustain us in our efforts to serve our profession, ourselves, and you. Amen.

Wayne Brumbach

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

THE "REAL" WORLD OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

SHELDON L. FORDHAM
University of Illinois at Chicago Circle

Several weeks ago as I began to think of what I should say to you, I was reminded of a story told about one of our sports philosophers—a man named Lawrence Berra. You'll remember him better as Yogi Berra—formerly a catcher with the New York Yankees and currently the manager of the New York Mets. He was given an ovation on Yogi Berra Day in Sportsmans Park in St. Louis, and the fans gave him a heartfelt expression of their esteem with a trip to Bermuda, matched luggage, and several television sets. When his turn came to respond, in typical Berra fashion he said, "I sure want to thank everyone who made this day necessary."

Your president last year, Vern Sprague, spoke eloquently about the keys to a functional profession. You will recall that he asked for a reexamination of our program if we are to achieve the objectives sought by all of us. He proposed a plan for developing guidelines for future directions and missions of the profession to meet the dynamics of a changing culture. I believe that, along with the implementation of this plan, we need to assess what is happening today in what I wish to call the "real" world of physical education. How many times have college teachers and administrators been accused of not knowing what is happening out where the action is? How many times have students been critical of curricula that do not adequately prepare them for the realities of the job situation?

The primary focus of my remarks is a personal assessment of what is happening in physical education in one geographical section of this country encompassing a total population of approximately 8 million persons. I have had an opportunity during the past four months to observe programs and talk with professionals at the elementary, secondary, and junior college level. My visitations included a kaleidoscope of schools from a neat, well-ordered suburban high school on Chicago's North Shore to a crowded, understaffed inner-city high school on Martin Luther King Drive and from a small rural high school adjacent to the city to a metropolitan junior college with an enrollment of 20,000 students and facilities for half that number. Whether or not these observations represent a cross section of programs throughout the United States is not for me to say, or to decide, but I believe they represent an honest appraisal of the status of programs in elementary and secondary schools and junior colleges in metropolitan Chicago.

There was general agreement among those with whom I talked that schools are now enlisting the help of all constituencies in the planning and utilization of facilities for physical education and recreation. One suburban school district has appointed a task force of citizens, parents, college professors, clergy, and agency people to study the issues of (1) required versus elective physical education in the public schools, (2) coordination of all community recreation facilities, and (3) adult recreation.

The specter of an overemphasis on interscholastic and intercollegiate athletics still haunts many physical education programs. Physical education classes are still being used too often as tryout camps for recruiting varsity athletes—in some cases even at the elementary and junior high school level.

A junior college department chairman asked me why many senior college professors look down their noses at junior college teachers and programs. This same chairman wondered why so few senior colleges have failed to articulate and adopt a common program for junior college transfers.

The perceptual-motor learning concept is being implemented in many elementary schools in the area, with more and more programs being conducted by trained physical educators in cooperation with the classroom teacher. Some concern was expressed by teachers regarding claims made for the intellectual aspects of perceptual-motor learning without supporting research evidence.

I saw behavioral objectives written in bold letters on a high school gymnasium wall visible to all students in a gymnastics class, and an elementary school principal proudly showed me such a list for every academic subject taught in his school.

Parents are becoming increasingly more involved in all types of school programs, particularly in the elementary schools, and the importance of a strong physical education program was expressed by many educators. I heard several elementary school physical education teachers say, "This is where it's all at." A recent nationwide survey conducted by the Athletic Institute indicated a definite increase in elementary physical education activity throughout the United States.

The teacher's role as a counselor and friend outside the classroom was continually referred to, particularly in the high school. Teachers in the inner-city schools were especially cognizant of such a role and expressed a strong belief that in many schools the dropout rate was directly proportional to the ability of teachers to relate to their students.

Some teachers felt that we should be less concerned about the cardiovascular effects of exercise and more concerned that students have fun. Others felt that the process and functions of learning are infinitely more important than the color of the uniform. There was complete agreement that students at all levels must understand why they are doing things.

"Get rid of driver education" was the plea of a high school department chairman who had lost instructional time from his physical education program to serve that area.

A high school superintendent felt that a schoolwide discussion of the issue of all required versus elective courses in his school would result in some mature questioning and reasoning as to the values of each. Obviously this discussion would include physical education.

"We are learning a great deal from the women," said a high school department chairman. Teaching assignments are now being made in many schools based on competency rather than sex. The practice of men and women sharing the same offices has improved communication at our own institution by at least 200 percent.

The importance of every administrator being visible and available was constantly alluded to at every level. Teachers stated that along with this visibility and availability administrators should be knowledgeable about what everyone is doing. There are no answers to problems in the confines of the ivory tower.

One of the most highly respected high school superintendents in the area told me he believes there is no substitute for motivation and intellectual capacity on the part of his teachers. On the subject of motivation, he felt that we fail to comprehend sometimes what an important part it plays in the success or failure of a teacher.

Decision-making in many of our schools is now becoming a team effort. An elementary school principal told me that he enlists the approval of all appropriate bodies before the appointment of any new teacher.

Cooperating teachers in the high schools said they are continually looking for student teachers with the ability to organize and to be flexible. They were emphatic in their belief that early exposure to a teaching experience (even as early as the sophomore year) is an important component of the teacher education curricula. This is felt to be particularly true for students preparing to teach in the inner-city schools.

The word *recruitment*, for so long a questionable word among educators, was a topic for discussion among many persons. Demographic studies indicate that student enrollments are likely to decline in the next decade. Will our classrooms and playing fields and gymnasiums be empty because we fail to provide learning experiences that are meaningful and relevant?

The opportunity to observe on a firsthand basis the programs I have just described was a rewarding experience, and I am pleased to report that many physical education programs, particularly at the elementary level, are moving ahead in metropolitan Chicago. Innovative, creative, and imaginative programs outnumber the stereotyped ones with which we are all so familiar. I saw leadership in many schools that is creative, intelligent, and democratic rather than autocratic and self-centered.

It is a sobering and disturbing experience, however, to observe that many problems we are facing in 1975 are essentially the same ones that existed as far back as the 1950s. Two studies conducted during that decade clearly illustrate this fact. A study by C.E. Forsythe, in which 34 selected physical educators were asked to list current problems, was completed in 1952. The following is a partial listing of their comments:

1. There is a lack of standarization and sequential development of our physical education curricula throughout our public schools and colleges.
2. The professional preparation program provided in many institutions of higher education is of an inferior quality.
3. There must be a reevaluation of the objectives and goals of physical education and the interpretation and understanding of these goals and objectives by the professional physical educator.
4. There is an irrational application of the competitive spirit in the program of activities for boys and girls at all levels.
5. We must close the gap between what we know and what we do in the field.[1]

Another compilation of basic issues and problems facing the profession was completed by R.J. Francis in 1956 at the University of Wisconsin. He lists the following:

1. There is a need for better public relations directed toward a better understanding of physical education by our "publics."
2. There are too many impoverished curriculums in physical education.
3. There is poor recruitment, selection, preparation, and retraining of professional personnel.

4. There are athletic problems at all levels. There has been a cleavage between athletics and other phases of the physical education program.
5. We need a philosophy of the profession. There are too many sharply conflicting concepts of the nature and purposes of our profession.[2]

It is significant that these lists of problems represent the opinions and views of leaders in the profession, some of whom were presidents of this association. Have we been spinning our wheels during the past 25 years? Are we still struggling to establish the place of physical education in relation to the many other areas of organized subject matter?

In an effort to seek a solution to some of the problems listed above and with a view toward strengthening the profession, I am proposing three courses of action. None of them is particularly profound; they cost little in actual dollars and can be practiced by everyone. I suggest that we (1) increase our circle of communication, (2) maintain the glow of our teaching, and (3) make our practice conform to our preachments.

Everywhere we turn today we encounter small circles of communication. These circles may encompass a private club or office or even a private road. The implication "it's mine, keep out" is always present. In one sense, each of us needs a place of refuge. But there is another sense in which the bigness of a human being can be measured by the circles he draws to take in the world. The same analogy can be made to a profession. Some professionals include only physical education in the circle they draw. Others include health and recreation; still others include other disciplines. But there are too few Albert Schweitzers who draw a circle large enough for all. This profession will thrive and prosper only if we increase our circles of communication. Edward Markham sums it up nicely in a poem:

> He drew a circle that shut me out—
> Heretic, rebel, a thing to flout.
> But love and I had the wit to win:
> We drew a circle that took him in.

Those of us who have seen the newest teaching devices are impressed with how this new technology can extend the services of the teacher. High fidelity recording and playback equipment can add audio collections to library books. Radio and television and language laboratories have increased our level of teaching effectiveness. We will argue, however, that the teacher is still the nucleus around which our educational system must be built, and it is vital that we maintain our glow of teaching. "Warm, understanding, friendly teachers are more effective than aloof, egotistical, and restricted teachers. Responsible, businesslike, and systematic teachers are more effective than evading, unpleasant, and slipshod teachers. Stimulating and imaginative and enthusiastic teachers are more effective than routine and dull teachers. Mediocre teaching exists because it has been tolerated and condoned, not because institutions have failed in earnest efforts for improvement."[3] Ralph Tyler, director of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences at Stanford University, says that too many college professors find teaching a dull routine. They enjoy research for the excitement of discovering new knowledge. They like consulting with business and government for the application of knowledge to new problems.

One significant way to revitalize teaching is to engage in experimentation that can at the same time yield the satisfactions of research and consultation and the rewards of working with young, active minds sharing the same quest.

"The best teacher wears a large invisible button that reads, 'I give a damn.'"[4] The teacher who believes that students become important not simply as prodigies in his area but as human beings engaged in the venture of living and attempting to achieve a higher level of individual and community or societal life is one who has maintained his glow of teaching.

If the teacher is as important as we believe, then it is important that we realize the implications of our influence upon our students. Do you as a teacher display personal drive, initiative, decisiveness, and good judgment? Do you also display the basic human qualities of compassion, reflectiveness, self-control, humility, and a touch of grace? It is a solemnly serious business to tell a student what to do, and it is also solemnly serious to set before him an example that runs counter to what we tell him. William James said, "It is well for the world, that in most of us by the age of thirty, the character has set like plaster, and will never soften again." Even though we feel that our own cast of character is safely set, we should carefully consider those who are not so set and who watch our words and our ways and shape their actions and utterances after us.

In keeping with the long-established policy that NCPEAM presidents make recommendations, I am proposing the following for consideration by President Husman and the Executive Council:

1. Appoint a special committee to investigate the possibility of closer articulation between senior colleges and the junior/community colleges in an effort to share mutual concerns and increase membership.
2. Create a joint NCPEAM-NAPECW task force to make recommendations to the Resolutions Committee for taking a stand on critical issues facing the profession.
3. Request that the NAPECW-NCPEAM Conferences and Projects Committee be continued and proceed toward implementation of the recommendations made at this meeting last year by President Vernon Sprague.
4. Create a special joint NCPEAM-NAPECW committee to be called the Professional Communications Network. The report submitted by the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM might prove extremely useful in developing a plan of action. The committee should represent a wide geographical area and be composed of persons with expertise and experience in public relations.

I would like to close with these words taken from James Michener's *Fires of Spring:*

> For this is the journey that men make: to find themselves. If they fail in this, it doesn't matter what else they find. Money, position, fame, love, revenge are all of little consequence, and when the tickets are collected at the end of the ride, they are tossed into a bin marked failure. But if a man happens to find himself . . . if he knows what he can be depended upon to do, the limits of his courage, the position from which he will no longer retreat . . . the secret reservoirs of his determination, the extent of his dedication, the depth of his feeling for beauty, his honest and unpostured goals . . . then he has found a mansion which he can inhabit with dignity all the days of his life.

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4. Ibid., p. 11.

I KNOW YOU THINK YOU UNDERSTAND WHAT I MEANT*

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I. Communications: the mutual exchange of information and understanding by any effective means.

II. Importance: 80 percent of waking hours spent in some form of communication; only 30 percent efficiency rate shown in studies

III. Goals of communications
- A. To get action
- B. To give (get) information
- C. To motivate or persuade
- D. To give (get) understanding

IV. Channels of communication
- A. Internal
  - 1. Downward—employer to employee
  - 2. Upward—employee to employer
  - 3. Lateral—employee to employee, etc.
- B. External

V. Chain
- A. Sender
- B. Idea
- C. Information
- D. Facts
- E. Medium
- F. Receiver

VI. Barriers to communications and listening
- A. Attitude
- B. Biases
- C. Cultural background
- D. Distractions
- E. Emotions
- F. Inferences
- G. Preconceived notions
- H. Inferences
- I. Interests
- J. Inner distractions
- K. Semantics
- L. Language
- M. Assumptions
- N. Status

*From "Communications Workshop: Summary of Key Points," in Edward E. Scannell, *Communications for Leadership* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970).

VII. Suggestions to improve listening
- A. Giving immediate feedback
- B. Tuning in
- C. Watching emotions
- D. Listening objectively
- E. Listening for ideas
- F. Being attentive
- G. Watching the message
- H. Thinking ahead
- I. Listening between the lines
- J. Empathizing
- K. Listening actively
- L. Stopping one's own talking

VIII. Communications and human relations: "Make a person like himself a little better and I promise he will like you very well indeed" (Lord Chesterfield).

REACTION TO "I KNOW YOU THINK YOU UNDERSTAND WHAT I MEANT"

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Mr. Scannell has given us an interesting and humorous look at some barriers to communication. It might be worth our while to review these barriers and to look at some examples, especially as they relate to physical education.

One of the barriers to communication presented is that of poor listening habits. Much has been written about people who are great speakers or who possess special gifts for improvisation; yet rarely is an individual paid his due as a courteous, enkindling listener.

Poor listening habits not only limit communication but suggest a lack of courtesy as well. The following exhortation admonishes us to become better consumers of information:

> Do more than exist; live.
> Do more than look; observe.
> Do more than read; absorb.
> Do more than hear; listen.
> Do more than listen; understand.

Several popular books—two of which are *Between Parent and Child* and *Between Parent and Teenager*—have been written on this general theme by Haim Ginott. The essence of Dr. Ginott's thesis is that we should not only hear but listen and try to understand feelings behind the words. It is only then that an individual can truly communicate with the other party.

A second barrier to communication discussed by Mr. Scannell is the general problem area that includes such things as assumptions, inferences, and predispositions. Perceptions of this nature are troublesome because they are almost always narrower than reality and frequently distorted. A relevant example of this was highlighted several years ago in an article by Louie Crew in *Saturday Review: Education*. The author had grown up as a less than physically gifted young man; however, he participated in physical education programs as part of his school experience. Unfortunately, this experience was unsatisfactory because

of certain assumptions made by his teachers. Instead of trying to teach this young man to learn more about his physical health or help him develop a broader range of activities and skills that he could use in later life, his teachers led him to accept the role of a physically incompetent person with limited alternatives. He received no sympathy and little guidance. A short quotation may further demonstrate his feelings:

> For a long time I treasured illusions that my experiences with physical miseducation resulted merely from my provincial isolation, that real professionals elsewhere had surely identified and rectified these ills. But as I moved from south to west to east, and even to England, I found very few real physical educators.
>
> Almost no one is interested in educating individuals to discover their own physical resources and to integrate them with all other personal experiences. Almost everyone is interested in developing ever better professionals to provide vicarious entertainment for a physically inept society.

The message is clear. A false assumption lead Mr. Crew's teachers to encourage him away from activity. On the contrary, Mr. Crew wanted to learn about himself and to improve his physical abilities.

Another barrier to communication that Ed spoke about is the barrier of language, semantics and the words themselves. This problem is especially evident because although the number of technical words in the English language is increasing, the general vocabulary of the typical American is shrinking. An example of this problem was brought home to me as I was doing some consulting work for the US Air Force. The specific project involved an analysis of instructional cues used by instructor pilots with student pilots attempting to learn the perceptual-motor skill of flying a jet fighter. It was found that 77 percent of the instructional cues given by the instructor pilot were essentially dysfunctional. In other words, the cues that were given, which supposedly would help the student pilot execute the maneuver that was planned, in fact served as no help at all or actually led to a response opposite to the one planned. As all the instructions were verbal, it is obvious that this lack of communication involved a problem with language or semantics.

Another personal example that comes to mind is that of a young student teacher attempting to teach children the overhand throw. This student was fresh from his undergraduate kinesiology class. Part of his verbal instruction went like this:

> The left foot steps out toward the target, knees slightly flexed, and the pelvis begins to rotate to the left, followed by the upper spine. When the forearm is rotated back to about horizontal and the body is nearly facing the target, the arm immediately rotates and the shoulder and the elbow extends.

As you might imagine, even though this explanation of the overhand throw was correct, no useful information was communicated to his first grade class. To an experienced teacher this mistake is obvious, but this problem of communication was very real to the young students.

In conclusion, we might take a short look at Mr. Scannell's definition of communication: "Communication is a mutual exchange of information and understanding by any means." The responsibility for successful communication

rests on the shoulders of both the speaker and the listener. A person must not only hear but listen, however, and if communication ended here, I am afraid it would be a pretty dull world.

It has been said that "the mind is a fire to be lighted, not a vessel to be filled." For meaningful communication to take place in the teaching realm, we must strive to go beyond hearing, listening, and understanding. It is only when the topic becomes meaningful that the fires of intellectual inquiry will be lit. Our purpose is to keep the flame of learning from being snuffed out by barriers to communication.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCE OF SPORT: A NEED FOR FURTHER KNOWLEDGE

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The recent growth of the social science of sport—more specifically, the sociology of sport—as a field of study has stimulated great interest in both physical education and sociology. A concern has arisen among some physical educators, however, as to the relationship of this area of specialization to physical education. They have argued that the social science of sport more appropriately belongs in a department of sociology, that the research problems undertaken have little to do with the study of human movement and thus are not aspects of physical education. On the other hand, there are physical educators who have welcomed this subdiscipline into the profession hoping that the contributions toward positive social values claimed by physical education can finally be substantiated. Unfortunately, both viewpoints have neglected the substance of the subject matter with which the social science of sport is concerned, the methodology it employs, and the nature of the questions investigated. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to present another perspective, which may have ramifications for the two viewpoints previously mentioned. It is hoped that a few guidelines and alternative directions for the social science of sport will be the result.

Although not a new idea, the possibility of the behavioral sciences' offering new facts, meanings, and implications with reference to several given problems in physical education has not been fully exploited. Despite the current bandwagon interest in the behavioral sciences, the profession has not addressed itself, sociologically speaking, to the plea made by Cowell for an intelligent, systematic endeavor to revise current beliefs, to weed out errors, and to test the accuracy of beliefs.[1] Essentially, the achievement of this goal could be accomplished through acquisition of more knowledge, which would result in a greater understanding of those influences and consequences of man's participation in sport and physical activity. Likewise, the goal of the social science of sport is to identify the regularity of underlying patterns of behavior in a sport context—to describe them, to explain them, and eventually to predict them. The objective is the understanding of sport and physical activity per se, with the assistance of sociological theory and methodology.[2]

Therefore, one of the first questions to be asked is simply, What are we to study? Past and present research offers a partial answer to this question: we merely need to examine the literature. It becomes obvious that the sport sociologist, as well as the physical educator, has been preoccupied with three main aspects of social behavior: (a) behavioral dispositions toward sport and physical activity, (2) affective dispositions toward sport and physical activity, and (3) social attributes of those individuals who are involved in some manifestation of sport or physical activity. However, these topics hardly run the gamut of human movement that can be explored from a behavioral perspective. Of necessity, knowledge is needed beyond observation of selected personality traits, atti-

tudes, and self-image. It is time to reexamine these topics from more sociologically significant perspectives. Rather than listing personality traits, we should shift focus and treat aspects of personality as behavior induced by specific social situations. For example, particular types or the degree of competitive and stressful sport situations that evoke aggressive behavior are yet to be identified. Furthermore, which significant others influence the development of attitudes toward sport and to what degree? At what point during the life cycle are such attitudes developed?

In order to gain a greater understanding of the role and significance of physical activity, we will need more abstract ideas and theoretical constructs and must use concepts from the social sciences. Unfortunately, physical education has been preoccupied with the concrete and the practical, with technique, and with isolated findings that do not relate to a theoretical framework. In essence, we have been long on application or practice and short on ideas.

Those great ideas that permeate the profession have been so grandiose as to be useless with respect to measurability, testability, and hence validity. Nevertheless, it has been those general notions of character building, good sportsmanship, and social benefits of physical education that have become dogma. However, we should not permit such dogma to limit our inquisitiveness, our rigor in the pursuit of understanding, and our quest for knowledge about topics that essentially belong in physical education and need to be researched. Let us consider a few topics that can provide useful information. Keep in mind that these possibilities hardly exhaust the realm of potential ideas.

First of all, knowledge can be extended beyond behavioral and affective dispositions. Elements of social structure and the culture of given social systems should be examined.[3] For instance, norms, values, and sanctions held by various subcultures, relative to sport involvement, have not been fully explored. Although some information pertaining to the relationship of sport to the school exists, there has been little effort to distinguish between the values held by the school as an entity in itself and those subgroups that constitute the population of that school. In other words, the issue is one of reification as well as stratification.

Furthermore, with the exception of the literature on the black athlete, the topic of minority group sport socialization has been virtually ignored. While some theoretical notions pertaining to the black athlete have been explored, pertinent questions relative to the saliency of sport or concerning norms, sanctions, opportunity set (socializing situation), and other significant influences on nonblack minority groups have not been asked. What knowledge do we have pertaining to the agents of socialization, role models, and reference groups of ethnic minorities? Thus, it would be of great value to pursue information about the Chicano and the Native American, particularly in the Southwest. We need to examine the extent to which physical activity is significant and the role it plays within the cultures of these two groups. We need to discover the types of games most salient to both groups. Pursuit of such problems would broaden our base of knowledge. Findings would be relevant to the physical educator, as the knowledge rendered could have application to curriculum decisions and practices.

With respect to racial issues, instead of posing questions that can be systematically analyzed, we perpetuate notions that have never been verified. Does sport really promote good race relations and ethnic understanding? If the races play well together will such behavior be exhibited off the field? Are there such things as carry-over values and behaviors? We don't know; there is a dearth of research and empirical evidence on the subject. Small-group investigations of

team performance have not been concerned with the process of integration or with the compatibility of contrasting value structures of team members. Needless to add, consequences of such mixtures also remain unknown.

Thus, there is a need to establish priorities for topics to be considered. Rather than devoting excessive time and energy to the descriptive studies of games and costumes, perhaps we should examine the social structure and social processes of minority groups in a game or sport situation. As a result, questions could be posed regarding the function of physical activity and sport within these subcultures. Similarly, we could obtain explanatory as well as descriptive information. We could gain insight into the values, expectations, and social structure of the culture as well as determine the extent to which games reflect such social phenomena. More specifically, the emphasis that both the culture and the game activities place on conformity, cooperation, competition, achievement, or aggression can be examined. The extent to which these behavioral manifestations are evident in games could be empirically measured, and such research would be theoretically derived utilizing continuous rather than nominal variables. Thus, the problem of mutually exclusive behaviors would be eliminated.

These notions can be extended into the realm of application as well. Once pertinent facts are obtained, decisions relevant to curriculum can be made. For instance, a curriculum suitable for reservation Indians could be developed; activities and skills appropriate to the specific group could be included. The adaptability of a similar curriculum for urban Indians would not be problematic. Thus, reasons and rationale for research and implementation would have a foundation based on systematic investigation of the same social reality for which application was intended.

Another parallel example can also be cited. If, according to Merton, each stratum or subgroup in a society has a socially approved adaptive mode of behavior related to its social structure, and if, according to Loy, there is a link between these adaptive modes of behavior and a typology of games, then both theoretical implication and practical application can be served. On the one hand, hypotheses could be tested and some semblance of construct validity could be obtained; on the other hand, game forms and social class variables could be related. In this respect, understanding can lead to selection of appropriate activities, recognition of similarities between various game forms, and designed curriculum planning.

Thus, in-depth study of the cultural milieu in which sport or physical activity takes place is essential. Focus should shift from one of description to one of structural-functional relationships between games and the fiber of the culture under examination. Rather than posing unanswerable questions, such as the why of physical activity, emphasis should be placed on the how, when, and where of sport involvement. Within such a framework various theoretical notions pertaining to processes can be utilized—such as a social-learning paradigm, sociological theories of group organization, and social-psychological constructs of aggression, achievement, cooperation, and competition.

Somewhat related to the concept of culture and subculture is the notion of social structure. The discovery of existent (or confirmation of nonexistent) relationships between elements of social structure (e.g., social-class variables) and sport involvement would provide more insight into the process of sport socialization. Although physical education has been concerned with the notion of general or diffuse roles—such as good sport and clean player—recent literature indicates that focus on the acquisition of specific roles would be more fruitful for research and application purposes.[4] Moreover, awareness of how individuals

acquire the necessary skills, knowledges, and dispositions to fulfill various sport roles (e.g., participant, fan, referee) could facilitate more effective enactment of the role of physical educator. Knowledge of how, where, and under what circumstances individuals learn various sport roles and develop their sport attitudes can enhance the physical educator's role as a socializing agent. Behavioral objectives could be written for ourselves, professionally, as we would know the directions in which teaching behaviors should be designed and the teaching styles that would be most applicable. Utilizing such techniques, sport socialization goals could be carefully delineated for each age group, objectives could be determined in accordance to specific opportunity sets, and the type and degree of exposure to sport role models could be predetermined and incorporated into the physical education curriculum.

Another topic requiring further knowledge from the perspective of the social sciences involves the development of motor patterns of children. To date, motor development and motor learning have been devoted to the biological and neuromuscular aspects of movement. However, the inclusion of behavioral and affective variables in studies of growth and development could provide several, heretofore unknown, explanations. For example, most specialists in motor development acknowledge the fact that skill and motor patterns are age related but not necessarily age determined. It would seem, then, that behavioral, societal, and cultural factors could influence movement activities and game preferences. But the mechanisms and extent to which such influences are significant are not known.

How much more enriching would motor development studies be if aspects of child-rearing practices, social-class background, ordinal position in the family, and demographic data were included? Perhaps peers serve as a positive reference group while the family serves as a negative influence on sport involvement. Or there may be certain normative mechanisms operant in the family but not in the school. Perhaps the existence of contradictory values between these two social systems accounts for differential motor performances and motor development—perhaps not. It is possible that certain reference group role models influence the development of motor patterns. We simply don't know.

Although physiological stages of motor development have been identified, sociological and psychological influences on such development have not been determined. To what extent is skill acquisition a function of opportunity set? During childhood is reinforcement a factor in movement performance and in continued physical activity? Given the complexity of skill acquisition, might there also be behavioral explanations as well as biological predictors?

Logically, then, there may be interaction effects of physiological and social-psychological factors. Yet collaborative endeavors with respect to the collection of multiple measures from the same subject are wanting. Perhaps some of the complexity of skill learning and motor development could be better understood through combined efforts of several specialists in the field. Furthermore, such strategies would increase depth and breadth of data; these endeavors would be feasible and productive. Resultant information would certainly provide material and principles for application.

With respect to strategies of methodology, there is another point worthy of emphasis. In addition to cross-sectional data-collection methods, more effort could be directed toward longitudinal studies. Institutes devoted to the study of human movement over the life cycle from many scientific perspectives might not be a figment of the imagination.

Most noticeable in the sport socialization literature is the absence of data on childhood participation patterns. The primary subjects have been adolescent or college-age students who have been asked to recall earlier sport experiences. Nowhere in the literature have we studied the socialization process of the athlete as he or she develops from childhood to adulthood.

Lest these past few remarks be misunderstood, let me hasten to add that my intention is not to tell specialists in motor learning, motor development, or the social science of sport what their interests ought to be. Rather, the purpose is to expand potential sources of information. A little imagination can go a long way.

At this juncture I would like to mention two additional areas that could be studied from a social sciences perspective: the phenomena involved are play and leisure. Although both phenomena quite often serve as the medium through which human movement occurs, these are two spheres about which physical education knows very little. We have abdicated our role in dealing with concepts and acquiring an understanding of play and leisure activities. Instead, we have been content to let psychologists and anthropologists become the experts on children's play and games and sociologists, the experts on leisure.

We have done little work with both phenomena. In fact even our efforts toward description and definition have been minimal. Essential to the understanding of both phenomena are identification and clear definition of constructs. It is not adequate to label all activities engaged in during free time as leisure. Nor is it sufficient to consider all nonutilitarian behavior play. Techniques for identifying theoretical concepts, statements for specifying definitions, establishing linkages between concepts, and ordering statements to construct theory are primary needs. Thus, the subject matter of leisure and play needs to be approached from a perspective of context as well as text.[5]

If understanding is our goal, then labels need to be converted to general variables and either-or concepts need to be transformed into measures of variance. Relationships between measures need to be established. Now, it might be argued that theory building is not our bag. However, physical educators should be the experts in play and leisure activities, particularly when gross motor skills are involved. Therefore, it is logical that those most concerned with these phenomena should be the leaders in gathering knowledge and gaining understanding.

Theoretical models and paradigms are used in the social sciences to test generalizability and thus to increase explanatory power. Physical education could benefit from use of such a strategy. For example, pursuit of leisure activities could be explained from theoretical models that have measurable concepts that can be subjected to validation procedures. Perhaps the tension-excitement model could be used as a framework, or the socialization model may prove useful. The former paradigm views tension and excitement as a pleasurable contrast to routinized aspects of everyday life; whereas the latter focuses on leisure involvement as a function of family influence. However, if both are inadequate, we will need to search for another framework in which to test viable hypotheses.

Theory building would enable us to explain leisure and play involvement. A theoretical framework can focus our attention and assist in asking the right questions—those that penetrate the surface of the phenomena. Leisure and play are multidimensional concepts of great complexity. We can understand some of this complexity by carefully defining concepts. The more carefully we define concepts, the more precision we gain in measuring phenomena. The more pre-

cision in measurement, the greater the meaning of results. The greater the meaning, the more implication and application of information obtained.

In essence it is maintained that we need more abstract ideas and theoretical notions in order to understand some of the phenomena with which we are concerned. To date, we have left pertinent aspects of both play and leisure to other fields. It is time we buy back into the sociology of leisure and into the anthropology of play. However, we must do so with a perspective that requires more than mere description. We must have conceptual insight into play and leisure; utilization of a social sciences frame of reference can assist in this endeavor. It is further maintained that such an approach would have application and meaning to the practitioner as well as to the researcher. In so doing we can weed out errors, revise current beliefs, and test the accuracy of beliefs.

Moving from conceptual aspects, let us now examine some ways in which the social science of sport could add to knowledge about some current issues. One issue pertains to the female participant or athlete: the second is related to what is commonly known as athletics.

With respect to women and sport there are many levels at which information can be sought. Although there are practical matters related to legal and economic aspects of this topic, little effort has been extended to understand the significance of recent legislation beyond these practical considerations. In fact, those relationships of most concern involving women, sport, and the law have been specific court cases. However, historical precedents that have influenced female sport participation have not been utilized to gain perspective for the present or future. Moreover, several decisions relative to policy-making, guidelines, and regulations have been based on past philosophy, which may or may not have been more emotional than rational in foundation. If we are to truly understand the phenomenon of female sport participation and the impact of fiscal and legal realities, perhaps some attention should be given to underlying principles as well as the social reality within which women's sports currently operate.

Furthermore, with the exception of attitude, personality, and self-image studies, the topic of women in sport has been relatively unexplored. Moreover, most of the knowledge available on female athletes has been obtained from elite performers—national and international competitors—who are predominantly of college age. We still do not know who the female participant is, where she comes from, how she became involved in sport, or the operant value and reward structure during her participation. There are some hypotheses, but little empirical evidence. Similarly, we do not know the degree to which social-learning variables exert positive influence on the participant and negative influence on the nonparticipant. Do the same factors that account for participation also affect nonparticipation? Or are there entirely different explanatory variables?

In addition to these questions, other information pertaining to women is needed. For instance, those factors that distinguish the elite athlete from the participant who possesses a lower degree of involvement have not been identified. The role of physical education in the female sport socialization process has not been determined. Thus, there is a need to study the effect of various social systems, role models, opportunity sets, and social structure variables in relation to initial involvement as well as continued sport involvement. Moreover, those factors that account for nonparticipation might have greater implication for altering teaching behaviors and practices in physical education than do those variables that influence participation.

Some theoretical considerations are also pertinent to this discussion. Although a juxtaposition between norms, sanctions, reference group influences, and opportunity set has offered insight into sport involvement, there is need to analyze further the social-learning paradigm itself. Perhaps some of the independent variables previously considered to act simultaneously could be treated as intervening variables. It has not been determined whether the socialization model that accounts for initial involvement in sport is valid for explanations of continued sport involvement. In addition, we need to consider whether this theoretical framework is powerful enough to supply explanations for nonparticipation as well as participation. Such theoretical considerations may offer insight into significant questions that physical educators frequently ask. For example, what relationships exist among attitudes, values, and behavior toward sport? Which factors determine these relationships, if, indeed, there are any? Of course, these are only two possibilities.

A second issue to be considered deals with the structure and organizational nature of sport, particularly in the school. However, it should be remembered that highly organized sport (e.g., athletic competition) has also flourished under the auspices of the community, private clubs, and business enterprises. Therefore, the following remarks could be applied to these contexts as well as to the school. Several concepts from organizational theory could be utilized to understand the relationship between sport and the school. For example, goals, structure, technology, leadership, and the environment could serve as frames of reference for analysis. The influence of the public, boards of regents, and booster clubs could be studied from a structural-functional perspective. Utilization of such concepts can provide meaningful information and avoid the perennial problem of condemning or attributing positive values to athletics.

In addition, theories from economics might be useful in analyzing the relationship between sport and the school. Moreover, an analysis of the power structure and processes of decision-making could be most informative. It is equally appropriate to ask, Who makes what decisions about sport, for what reasons, under what circumstances, at what time, and with what consequences? as it is to pose the same questions about government and political institutions. Let me emphasize, however, that the purpose of such questions would be to determine the degree of institutionalization of sport, the role and function it fulfills, and its relationship to other institutions. Therefore, the intention of such inquiry is the search for social significance, not justification.

Closely related to the issue of athletics is the claim that sport participation enhances social mobility. However, mobility patterns have not been thoroughly examined. Indeed, the concept of mobility is quite complex; it has elements of level as well as dimension.[6] A difficult task, nevertheless an enlightening one, would be to follow the career patterns of athletes after graduation. Information relative to educational achievement, occupational status, income attainment, and postgraduation sport participation patterns could be systematically obtained. Furthermore, such an endeavor would have implications for accountability as well as research. Through such data we could learn the ways in which sport participation serves or does not serve as a vehicle for social mobility. At the same time some of our claims and beliefs would be tested.

As a final consideration I would like to mention the apparent schism that has occurred between the social science of sport and physical education. Perhaps some aspects of the issue are related to the discipline versus the profession controversy. Also related may be the normative (or value-oriented) versus nonnormative (or value-free) approach to research. However, the gap between these

perspectives does not reflect mutually exclusive functions. Rather, the gap is a reflection of communication breakdown, lack of collaboration, and feelings of inferiority. It would appear that one possible bridge across this gap is to increase communication and to share interests. Therefore, it is more important at the present time to answer "knowledge of what" than to answer "knowledge for what, for whom, or from what."

In summary, I would like to conclude with the following remarks. Although focus has been directed mainly toward research endeavors, it is hoped that the types of research questions posed would expand knowledge and that such an extension would have professional implications and application. Despite the variety of topics considered, there have been several recurring themes. Essentially, more knowledge is needed regarding the process of socialization, whether it be concerned with sport involvement, leisure pursuits, or motor development. Furthermore, the relationship of other social processes to sport involvement should be examined; conformity and deviance, social change, stratification, and social behavior dynamics would be a few examples. Sociological, psychological, and cultural factors need to be examined concomitantly with biological aspects of physical activity and sport. There is a definite need for a growth of ideas and theoretical frames of reference from which empirical research can be based. Moreover, collaboration should be encouraged among the various specialists in the field. Although there are many specific topics that can be investigated from a social sciences frame of reference, the purpose is to understand the complex constellation of variables that influence physical activity. Only through a grasp of the multidimensionality of these biological, behavioral, affective, and cognitive dispositions can we hope to improve our field.

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A TAXONOMY OF SPORT FORMS

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Sport in its variety of forms has permeated the culture of man since recorded history. In most societies it has held a prominent position as a social institution. Today sport is exploding with new activities, competitions, and participants. The drive to be involved is producing new sport forms at an ever increasing rate. Not too many years ago school sport teaching and competition involved only the four major sports: football, basketball, baseball, and track. Today most schools offer instruction in three times that number and are being pressed to include newer activities as supplements to their current offerings.

NEED FOR CLASSIFICATION

To date, the study of sport has been only scantily undertaken. No other social institution having such impact on society has received so little scholarly attention. In the past ten years the academic study of sport as a sociophysical phenomenon has evolved and gained acceptance in some institutions of higher learning. An important prerequisite to the systematic investigation of any field is a classification system for describing and ordering occurrences in that field. This undertaking in the field of sport is obviously complex even when one casually observes the multitude of combinations of activities, implements, environments, and participants that now make up the variety of sports. Currently there is no accepted scheme for classifying sports into meaningful categories. The few techniques for sorting out the diverse components of sport proposed to date include suggestions of labeling sports as individual, dual, or team or have used a common environment—field games, aquatics, court games—or a general type of implement—ball games, racket sports. None of these has been well accepted by a majority of those involved with sports. Kenyon feels that interpreting physical activity in a programmic sense (e.g., as team versus individual activities, dance, combatives, racket sports, aquatics) may have operational value for neatly organized programs and curricula but has no value whatsoever when attempting to conceptualize physical activity and, further, that this heuristic categorization, based purely on pedagogical grounds, has held back thought in physical education in terms of accurately denoting physical activity.[1]

In fact, many of the commonly used classifications create significant confusion as to what constitutes each category. For example, is swimming an individual or a team sport? One participates as an individual but scores are computed on a team basis. Is tennis a ball game or a racket sport? Are all aquatic sports—diving, water polo, and crew racing—really that similar? Grouping of sports together under a single label implies great commonality. Obviously this is not true in the examples above. It would be as meaningful to classify certain sports as uniform sports denoting that uniforms are worn by contestants or terming certain sports as summer sports since competition is usually engaged in during the summer months. These means of classification fail to identify any elements that critically differentiate between the nature of sport activities.

Kenyon, noting these shortcomings, suggests the focus of attention be shifted to the participants in sport. He suggests physical activity be divided into

six subdomains characterizing the "perceived instrumentality" that sport has for the participants: social experience, health and fitness, pursuit of vertigo, esthetic experience, catharsis, and ascetic experience.[1]

Though these may prove helpful in understanding the personal drive for involvement in sport, they provide no guidance toward classifying sport itself, since different individuals may partake of the same sport for a variety of reasons.

Roberts and Sutton-Smith suggest that games be classified by their outcome attributes: (1) games of physical skill, (2) games of strategy, and (3) games of chance.[2] Similarly, Callois has classified sports into a subgroup of games (*agon*) whose central characteristic is competition. Further, ". . . the contest hinges on a single quality—speed, endurance, vigor, memory, deftness, ingenuity, etc.—operating within defined limits and without any external help."[3] Both imply the use of intended outcome as a central theme. However, to date, no encompassing classification system has been proposed that would accomplish grouping of sports by common intent.

A meaningful system of ordering and describing the diversity of sport into generic categories would appear to be a necessary prerequisite to the systematic study of the field. Such a schematic would provide a taxonomy enabling the identification of common characteristics. Examination of the constituents might greatly aid in the quest for enlightened generalizations about sport forms, popularity, strategy, rules, skills, and potential public acceptance. It might also serve as a basis for theoretical statements indigenous to similar sport forms. As a further extension it could serve as a guide to developing new sport forms possessing specific predetermined characteristics. If nothing else, it should provide a schematic to aid in the understanding of the complexity of sport forms by accomplishing the homogeneous grouping of activities to which generalized concepts of rules, strategy, and scoring are applicable.

WHAT IS SPORT?

The term *sport* denotes a variety of meanings. For the purposes of the following classification system it is necessary to distinguish between those activities constituting sport and activities that will be termed games or recreational activities. The intent is not to demean any group of activities but rather to define explicitly the focus of attention of this classification system. In 1968, John Loy proposed the essential distinction between sport and other activities in his article "The Nature of Sport: A Definitional Effort."[4] Paraphrasing Loy, sport is an institutionalized game occurrence involving physical prowess, strategy, and chance, in combination. This definition requires that an activity meet several criteria before being termed a sport. First, it must be an institutionalized game, i.e., have published rules defining manner of play and declaration of winners and possess a tradition. Second, physical prowess must play a dominant role in the outcome of the contest. Third, it must allow for the application of strategy by competitors, and, fourth, there must be some element of chance involved in the conduct.

The first criterion, that of being an institutionalized game, implies that winners are declared as in all games. This eliminates many recreational activities including hunting, fishing, mountain climbing, and bird-watching from the realm of sport. Although these activities may meet all the other criteria, without the one element of competition, they must be eliminated. Further, the hitting of golfballs on a driving range only qualifies as sport practice until one

actually enters into competition and keeps score in organized play. Likewise the popular recreational activity of skiing fails to meet the competitive criterion until one enters into organized races.

The elements of chance and strategy are probably present, to at least a limited degree, in most games; however, the element of physical prowess greatly delimits the possible activities. Although included in *Sports Illustrated* and on many a sports page, the game of bridge fails to qualify as demanding physical prowess. Similarly chess, checkers, card games, word games, etc., fail as sports. Physical prowess is not limited to strength and endurance but includes all of the highly complex and coordinated bodily movements indigenous to a multitude of activities. Thus billiards, croquet, and Ping-Pong qualify as sports although not demanding great physical strength.

THE TAXONOMY

Having identified the scope of the concept sport, the following taxonomy is proposed as a method of classifying sports into generic types and further identifying their characteristic ingredients. The taxonomy consists of seven major classifications based on primary intent of the sport, followed by five categories depicting critical elements that constitute the nature of the sport form.

The seven generic sport types are: (a) Distance sports—competition is conducted with distance covered as the criterion to distinguish between winners and losers. (2) Speed sports—elapsed time is the measure of success in these sports; all races fall into this typology. (3) Body-control sports—winning is determined subjectively on the basis of difficulty and execution of bodily movements; all sports scored on "form" are of this type. (4) Goal sports—objects are propelled at a goal to result in some standard score; the purpose is to accumulate more goals than the opposition. (5) Target sports—objects are propelled at a target thus providing for differentiated scoring; the purpose is a high degree of accuracy resulting in a maximum score. (6) Terminal reciprocating sports—objects are put into reciprocating play; the purpose is to terminate the exchange and thus score. (7) Unique sport forms—sports that have a very specialized primary intent and thus do not fit well into the previous six categories.

The following abbreviated list gives examples of the variety of sport forms indicative of each sport type:

1. Distance Sports
   - pole vault
   - long jump
   - ski jumping
   - shot put
   - javelin

2. Speed Sports
   - track running
   - ski racing
   - auto racing
   - speed skating
   - crew racing
   - swimming races

3. Body-Control Sports
   - gymnastics
   - ice-skating
   - synchronized swimming
   - hot dogging (skiing)
   - surfing

4. Goal Sports
   - basketball
   - soccer
   - water polo
   - billiards
   - football
   - fencing

5. Target Sports
   - archery
   - bowling
   - horseshoes
   - skydiving
   - golf
   - boxing

6. Terminal Reciprocating Sports
   - tennis
   - handball
   - volleyball
   - badminton
   - squash

7. Unique Sport Forms
   baseball
   weight lifting
   wrestling

Further classification of any sport form, after having determined its generic type by intent, is obtained by applying the following dichotomies of critical elements.

1. Nature of the physical act: either (a) manipulative, (b) ballistic, or (c) unified. Manipulative skills focus primarily on accuracy or form. Ballistic skills involve primarily speed or power. Unified skills involve approximately equal emphasis on each. The physical act is further classified as: (1) object oriented or (2) body oriented. Thus ice-skating is classified as manipulative-body, discus throwing as ballistic-object, and tennis as unified-object.

2. Nature of opponent interaction: either (a) autonomous or (b) reactive. Autonomous means opponents are free to set their own pace and direction of performance. Reactive requires that an opponent respond to the actions of his adversary. Bowling and gymnastics are autonomous; basketball and wrestling are reactive.

3. Units of competition: either (a) individual or (b) team. Competition without the assistance or cooperation of any other competitor during the time of performance is individual, even if scores are summed to determine team standing. Team implies at least two performers engaging in the activity together as a unit. Swimming and archery are individual; football and tennis doubles are team.

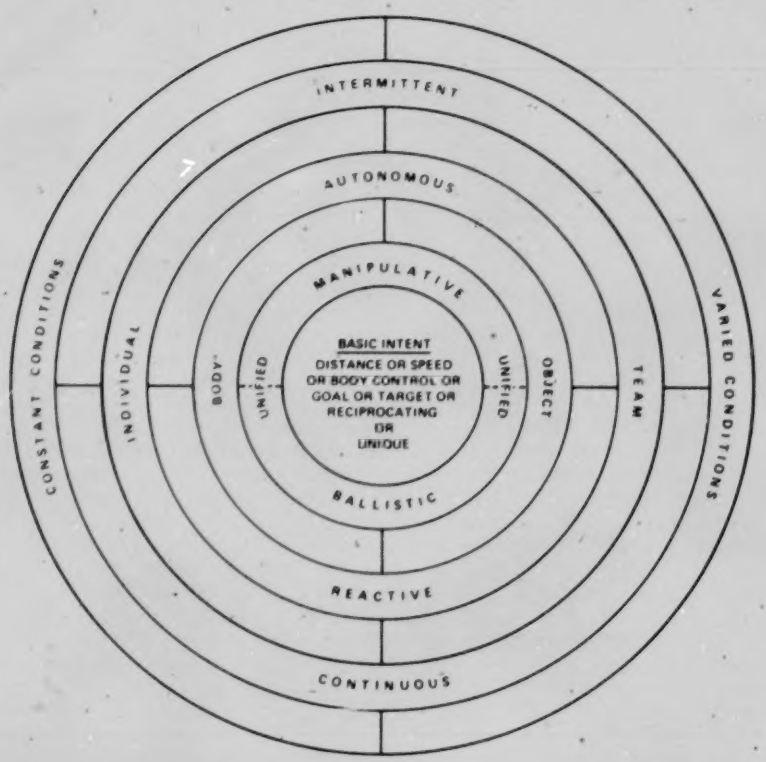
4. Time component: either (a) continuous or (b) intermittent. Continuous involves play in unbroken intervals at least until a score is made. Intermittent implies several attempts separated in time by rest intervals. Soccer and ice-skating are continuous; shot put and football are intermittent.

5. Environment: either (a) constant or (b) varied. A constant environment has exacting definitions of play areas, surfaces, or apparatus. A varied environment uses nonprescribed settings, often natural terrain, and thus varies from one competition to another. Field hockey and gymnastics occur in constant environments; cross country and yachting are conducted in varied environments.

Exemplifying the application of the taxonomy, archery would fall in type 5—target sports and would be further classified as: (1) manipulative-object, (2) autonomous, (3) individual competition, (4) intermittent, and (5) constant environment. This identifies the major dimensions of the sport form. In notation this can be summarized: archery—TARG, MO, A, I, I, C. In contrast, volleyball would be: volleyball—TREC, UO, R, T, C, C. This notation system allows for the examination of any group of sports based on one or a combination of common elements. It succinctly identifies similarities and differences among the various sport forms and hopefully will lead to future refinement and deeper understanding of the commonality in sport.

Figure 1 represents how the basic intent of a sport is diversified by its critical elements. Beginning at the center with one of the basic intents each concentric ring represents a dichotomy that further defines the nature of the sport form. The position on any ring does not determine the position on other rings; each is independent of the others. The proposed taxonomy thus accounts for 672 possible combinations of elements encompassing the variety of sport forms.

Figure 1. Sport Typology: Basic Intent Diversified by Critical Dichotomies



EMPLOYING THE TAXONOMY

Utilizing computerized retrieval, a printout of sports evidencing any group of similar characteristics can be readily obtained. Or, beginning with a particular sport form, a printout of all similar sports having one or more like elements can be secured. The obvious advantage of this technique is to identify the similarity in sports. As an example, since water polo and soccer have the same classification (goal, unified-object, reactive, team, continuous, constant environment), teaching of basic strategies and offensive and defensive patterns might be generalized. In fact new tactics based upon those used in similar sport forms might prove advantageous.

The taxonomy offers a succinct statement of sport types that might be incorporated into surveys of physical education and sport programs or used as one means of analyzing curricular offerings. By classifying a local high school's course offerings, it was noted that no activities were conducted in either body-

control or target sports, that an approximate equal balance was evident between individual and team sports, and that no offerings were conducted that are practiced in varied environments.

Sport popularity is an additional area where the application of the taxonomy might prove valuable. What combinations of qualities produce the most popular sports? A survey of sport popularity among college students revealed radical differences between the classification of the most popular spectator sports and the most popular participant sports. Why are there no sports with specific combinations of qualities, i.e., distance sports using team competition? Could we predetermine the characteristics of a new sport form to maximize its spectator and participant appeal or to enhance the chance of equal competition by women? Might the class of sports most popular in various countries or cultures be related to their governmental structure, their standard of living, or their geographic location?

SUMMARY

An important prerequisite to the systematic study of any field is a classification system for identifying and ordering occurrences. A taxonomy of sport forms is proposed based on the primary intent of the sport and modified through five critical dichotomies existing in sport settings. The value of the taxonomy rests in its ability to provide a scheme enabling generalizations about the subsets of sport activities.

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PHYSICAL ACTIVITY: A PHYSICAL ANTHROPOLOGIST'S PERSPECTIVE

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All people the world over participate in physical activities in some form or other. They represent a broad lot, ranging from daily routines and subsistence activities to play activities to specific societal rituals to highly competitive sports. Basic to such activities is movement—its style, level of skill, intensity, duration, and meaning, which, needless to say, varies with the activity, with age and sex, and with population groups. In this broad context, the basic question to which this paper addresses itself is simple: How does a physical anthropologist view physical activity in the human species?

It is perhaps best at the outset to inquire why one might expect a physical anthropologist's view to be different from that of other disciplines. Certainly, the public stereotype of a physical anthropologist's activities suggests an individual seeking answers to questions largely of academic relevance. To most people, physical anthropologists are guardians of the past and keepers of the bones, seeking to reconstruct our phylogeny and that of our primate ancestors and to classify humans into various racial categories.

Physical anthropology, however, is currently broader in its orientation, focusing on the analysis of human biological variability. Physical anthropologists attempt to understand the biological development and organization of human populations both of the past and the present and to make a link between the past and the present, since evolution is a continuous process.

Variability is the central theme of physical anthropology. It implies, of course, differences—differences between individuals, within populations, and between populations. Differences can be genotypic, phenotypic, or cultural and depend largely on the interaction of the organism and its environments. Such differences between individuals and populations have accumulated over time and space, thus providing a broad range of substantial and meaningful variation. Physical anthropologists attempt to organize this variation and to understand its origin, adaptive significance, and maintenance in human populations. How, for example, does such variability come about? How does the apparent variation aid a population to live and persist in its ecological setting?

Central to the understanding of human biological variation is the recognition of man as a biocultural organism in constant interplay with his environments—the natural, the man-made, and the human (social). The biological and cultural evolution of man proceeded in concert, such that biology and culture cannot be separated. Hence, the interaction of biology and culture as codeterminants of biological variation is emphasized. We cannot approach man in a purely biological way; similarly, culture cannot serve as a complete explanation for human behavior in the sense that the biological organism is behaving. Hence, physical anthropologists focus on the biocultural approach to human variation.

It is within this perspective of man as a biocultural organism that physical activity, broadly conceived, as a part of man's adaptive apparatus must be understood. The physical activity of an individual or a group, however, is dependent upon, conditioned by, and adapted to cultural influences. Activities are performed within a local cultural pattern, which as the consensus of individual behavior patterns, relationships, and values has coherence, continuity, and distinctive form. In addition, the conditions that maintain specific cultural codes for physical activities and the means by which they operate in different cultures must be determined if the role of physical activity as a part of the human adaptive process is to be understood. Similarly, it is essential to realize that whatever talents or skills an individual may have, his ability and creativeness will express themselves within the limits set by his culture.

Problems and methods considered by physical anthropologists have much in common with those considered by physical educators. Both, for example, devote much effort to understanding growth and development, physical performance, development and biomechanics of movement patterns, health and disease, and so on. Differences between physical educators and physical anthropologists revolve about questions asked of similar problem areas and the perspective within which an answer is sought. Physical anthropologists generally operate within the perspective of human biological variability and man as a

biocultural organism, physical educators generally operate within the perspective of physical activity as a part of the school curriculum, as an essential adjunct to healthy living, and, more recently, in terms of sport and society.

In light of the preceding, this paper considers physical activity, be it subsistence, play, exercise, dance, and/or sport, in terms of four themes: (1) the evolutionary context, (2) the concept of plasticity and human adaptability, (3) motor-skill development as a part of the adaptive process, and (4) a speculative attempt to link the past and the present through the use of a motor skill.

AN EVOLUTIONARY OVERVIEW

Within an evolutionary context, three coordinated changes are generally considered basic to the concept of "human-ness": (1) the acquisition of upright posture and habitual bipedal locomotion, (2) toolmaking, and (3) language.[1] The changes leading to the development of these human characteristics apparently were coordinated, emphasizing the concurrent progress of man's biological and cultural evolution. The two can be regarded as two faces of the same coin.

The beginnings of human-ness go back 3-4 million years to the *Australopithecines*, small creatures who showed a mosaic of manlike and apelike characteristics.[2] They stood erect and walked bipedally and were found in association with crude but unmistakable stone tools. A remarkable feature of the fossil record at this time is that these early hominids made and used tools long before their brains were much larger than those of apes, indicating perhaps a synergistic interaction of cultural and biological evolution. One can speculate that there would have been strong selection pressures for neural mechanisms underlying the efficient manufacture and use of tools. Indeed, selection pressures for proficiency in motor skills (e.g., bipedal locomotion, manual dexterity, hunting ability) at this early phase of our evolutionary development must have been quite strong.

The next well-documented phase of man's evolutionary history is represented by *Homo erectus*, who dates back about 1/2-1 million years ago. As his name implies, he perfected upright posture and thus walked habitually erect. *Homo erectus* was likewise an efficient toolmaker and mastered the control of fire. His brain was distinctly larger than *Australopithecus*, but smaller than that of modern man. It is further suggested that the human way of hunting, i.e., hunting as a whole social pattern (planning, technical skill, sharing, cooperation, and sexual division of labor), had evolved by the time of *Homo erectus*.[3]

Our species, *Homo sapiens*, appeared on the evolutionary scene about 100,000 years ago, although the earliest fully modern types appeared only some 30,000 to 35,000 years ago. Physically, he was very much like us today, perhaps a bit more robust. He had a well-defined culture, had more and well-defined tools, and was the first hominid to take himself outside his place of origin, i.e., from the Old World land mass into America and Australia. His adaptive capacities were undoubtedly greatly extended by his cultural development, and so he was able to meet environmental challenges, expand his range, and increase his numbers.

By the time we reach the more elaborate cultures of early and relatively recent *Homo sapiens*, we find a marked variety of cultures with different emphases. Ten thousand years ago we had the beginnings of agriculture and domestication; 7,000 years ago we had the beginnings of urbanism; and only 200 years

ago we had the Industrial Revolution, whose impact we are still feeling today in the form of our vast scientific-technological establishment. These developments from the beginnings of agriculture to the present are actually quite recent on an evolutionary scale that goes back at least 3-4 million years.

Man has thus been a hunter and gatherer for a major percentage of his history. Although we have made the transition from an active to a more settled way of life, it is within this evolutionary past that many of our behavior patterns are rooted. It is no wonder, therefore, that there is much interest in ethology, the study of animal behavior including human behavior. Such discussions as Lorenz's *On Aggression*, Ardrey's *Territorial Imperative*, Morris's *Naked Ape*, Tiger's *Men in Groups*, and Tiger and Fox's *Imperial Animal*, to mention a few, are quite common and much in demand. Popular interest in understanding our past as it might relate to current behavior patterns is perhaps well summarized in the title of a recent article in *New York* magazine: "Who Knows What Primitive Instincts Lurk in the Heart of Modern Corporate Man?"

Although we have changed little structurally over the past 30,000 years or so, there have been numerous sociocultural changes and perhaps physiological adjustments permitting man to adapt to the stresses imposed by a more settled and sedentary life-style and by the vast, interconnected technological establishment we currently live in. Not everyone is adapting successfully, however, as one can surmise from the increased frequency of degenerative diseases. Such conditions have distinct correlates in stresses within the sociocultural domain. Physical activity is implicated as beneficial in reducing the risk of degenerative disease. Activity changes toward a more sedentary life-style with our technological advancement are relevant here, considering that for most of our history we were dependent upon subsistence activities that were physically quite vigorous.

THE CONCEPT OF PLASTICITY

Plasticity is an aspect of the adaptive process and refers to the ability of an individual to respond to environmental pressures with short-term phenotypic modifications (i.e., morphological, physiological, biochemical alterations). It is a characteristic, not of a population, but of the individual, as individuals vary considerably in their plastic responses. Plasticity can be viewed in two ways, that operating during the period of growth and development (developmental plasticity) and that operating during adulthood. The former is differentiated from the latter in that growth and development are among the most plastic processes we can observe in nature. And, short-term modifications in the growth and development processes in response to environmental stress can become permanent and are thus irreversible after adulthood. The response depends, of course, on the intensity, duration, and timing of the stress.

How is plasticity related to physical activity? Two of the more frequently cited biological objectives of physical activity programs are related to this concept: (1) exercise stimulates growth of the child and (2) exercise promotes organic fitness. Changes associated with activity programs during childhood and adulthood fall into the category of plastic responses. Children will grow whether they are physically active or not, and adults will persist in light of minimal activity programs. Exercise-associated changes in body tissues (e.g., size, functional efficiency, etc.) during the years of active growth can perhaps become

permanent characteristics of the individual[4,5] and perhaps enhance his functional efficiency as an adult (not discounting the importance of carry-over effects of activity habits learned during childhood). On the other hand, exercise-associated changes noted in adults are dependent upon continued activity for their maintenance. In a sense, the changes are short-term physiological adjustments to the exercise stress and are reversible. Thus, changes associated with regular physical activity reflect plastic responses, and the limits of an individual's plasticity is set by his genotype. Such phenotypic variation related to activity programs and pursuits in turn contributes significantly to biological variability observed within and between populations.

MOTOR-SKILL DEVELOPMENT

Motor skills are an important component of an organism's behavioral repertoire and are an important aspect of the adaptive process, i.e., successful adaptation to the environment. As such, motor skills per se and their role in the adaptive process are an important source of variability. There are undoubtedly many motor patterns and skills common to man as a single biological species. There is also variation in the organization of these patterns and skills across different cultures.[6] The study of motor skills and their development, refinement, use, and relationship to survival or to a successful way of life of an individual and/or his group is thus essential to an understanding of human adaptability.[7]

Implicit in the preceding is the cross-cultural study of motor skills. The cross-cultural method is basically a research strategy rather than a field of substantive interest in itself.[8] The strategy is largely comparative, with much focus on antecedent-consequent relationships. Evidence for differences between different cultural groups then becomes a starting point for further inquiry.

Motor-skill development, an oft-cited objective of physical education, has received considerable study. The study, however, has concerned itself primarily with skill development in the Western cultural context and has not entered the cross-cultural laboratory. As with other developmental processes, perhaps more so, motor development is quite plastic. There is variation in the timing of development, which can be related to rearing practices and demands and to changes associated with weaning. The significance of early variation in motor development for later skill development and performance, however, has not been investigated in Western groups or across different cultures.[9,10,11]

In addition to a developmental perspective, there are other reasons for studying motor skills cross-culturally (these reasons, it should be noted, are not mutually exclusive of a developmental approach): (1) to analyze motor skills or performance attributes that are related to survival or to a successful way of life of an individual and his group and (2) to determine the ease or difficulty with which primitive, preliterate, or preindustrial groups may accept technological change.[7] The first reason relates motor skills to human adaptability per se, i.e., as adjustments to the natural and cultural environments; the second reason is applied more as it relates motor skills to adaptation to a new way of life.

Skill characteristics of so-called primitive, preliterate, or preindustrial populations vary from culture to culture depending of course on the environment, resources, and specific cultural demands and sanctions. It would be of importance to know the nature of these skills, how they are learned, specific methods and techniques, and so on. The motor programming of an Eskimo youth to hunt, for example, involves a series of general and specific activities beginning very early in childhood. These include special tendon-lengthening exercises and throwing exercises from a seated position designed for hunting from a kayak.[12]

On the other hand, rapid technological progress, especially in developing areas of the world, presents potential problems for the technologically simple primitive groups. Their skills are not necessarily suited to the demands of a technological society, and it is increasingly becoming necessary to evaluate the capacity of individuals in these groups to learn the new skills of a machine-oriented technology.[7]

LINKING THE PAST AND THE PRESENT: ROOM FOR SPECULATION

Extrapolating from observations on contemporary populations to earlier human populations is indeed difficult and hazardous. Nevertheless, it is necessary if we are to develop a better understanding of the way of life of early man:

> The Pleistocene way of life can only be known by inference and speculation. . . . As we go farther back in time, there is less evidence and the biological and cultural difference becomes progressively greater. Yet it was in those remote times that the human way of life took shape, and it is only through speculation that we may gain some insights into what the life of our ancestors may have been.[8]

In this regard, attention has recently been drawn to the indications that spatial ability—the ability to create, maintain, and mentally transform a visual image—has an X-linked recessive mode of inheritance in Caucasians and that males apparently have a proportionately greater facility in this ability.[13] This is an important focus for anthropological research, for it might be argued that any sexual specialization of roles that might have been fostered by recessive sex-linkage of spatial ability at a given point in time would have had direct survival value for human groups and thus become an integral part of our genetic makeup. This thus becomes an interesting concern for cross-cultural research, when one considers that man has been a hunter for 99 percent of his history. Laughlin particularly stresses the concept that hunting behavior is prior, psychologically, to the use and manufacture of tools.[12] When stated in these terms, the relevance of spatial visualization to the hunting way of life is apparent.

In addition to the evolutionary advantage conferred by the development of tools, other aspects of spatial ability are integral to successful hunting. Mere directional orientation and memory for visual landmarks must have been required for man to find his way back to the group, for surely no other animal has ranged as far a man in search for food.[5] If, in addition, improved judgment of distance was involved and was correlated with throwing accuracy in males, e.g., the ability to throw stones and spears accurately and forcefully, this could presumably have allowed hunters to hit game at somewhat greater distances, thereby making the hunting enterprise less hazardous and resulting perhaps in longer-lived hunters as well as more meat.

Within this framework, we looked at an available set of data relating several measurements of throwing velocity and accuracy to spatial ability in a sample of boys 14-16 years of age.[14] Regression analyses indicated a relationship between spatial ability and throwing accuracy only in a vertical plane (vertical deviation accuracy). This unique relationship between spatial ability and verticality is especially interesting in that vertical deviations on an upright target would translate into skill and judgment with respect to distance were the target laid on the ground. Therefore, while emphasizing that only a small percentage of the variance in accuracy (14 percent) is accounted for by the spatial ability

test, the data suggest tentative evidence relating spatial skills to throwing, an important component of the hunting enterprise. Although caution is warranted in extrapolating from the present data to our hunting heritage, inference and speculation, as indicated earlier, are essential to gain insights into the life of early man.

In closing, physical anthropology and physical education have much in common. It is hoped that this paper contributes a sound perspective to this communality.

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THE POTENTIAL VALUE IN THE ANTHROPOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF SPORT

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INTRODUCTION

Anthropologists have not traditionally included an exhaustive analysis of sport in their studies of culture. The result is that the cultural descriptions we have are somewhat incomplete, and our ability to move toward a thorough and complete description of man is somewhat impeded. On the other hand physical educators, in their preoccupation with exercise physiology, motor development, and kinesiology, have not fully taken advantage of anthropology. The result is that physical education lacks a basis for understanding cultural diversity and lacks a basis for understanding the universality of sport.

The anthropological analysis of sport has a potential value for both anthropologists and physical educators. Anthropologists will benefit from an understanding of the extent to which behavioral patterns are consistent in all spheres of culture. Physical educators will benefit through an understanding of the cultural complexity and diversity involved in the patterns of behavior we label sport.

Some research has been done that illuminates this potential value, but before proceeding to that research I shall briefly discuss a conceptual tool that distinguishes anthropology from other disciplines and briefly discuss the focus of anthropological research.

THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN EMIC AND ETIC DESCRIPTION

Cultural anthropologists seek to identify the core of behavioral phenomena that make us human and about which there exists cultural variation. Usually we begin with some very obvious biological or social phenomena and seek to describe the strategy used by cultural groups to deal with those immutable factors. For example, the human phenomena of language has led linguists to describing the essential parameters of human language while also describing the type and extent of variation existing on those parameters. Linguistic analysis is not of particular relevance to sport analysis, but because the conceptual principle upon which linguists base their attempt to describe human language is of the utmost relevance, I shall pursue this example a bit further.

Over the course of many years, the attempt to construct a description of human sound production led to the identification and solution of a crucial problem. The problem stems from the fact that each language system has meaning according to a different set of basic sounds. Although all humans can emit the same sounds, each language system makes differential use of a portion of this complete repertoire. A linguist is faced with two tasks: (1) the identification of the basic sounds that have meaning, the *phonemes* of a language, and (2) the comparison of the phonemic structure of one language to that of other languages.

But the two tasks appear to be mutually exclusive. If you are successful in describing the phonemic uniqueness of one language system and you attempt to describe a second language from that unique point of view, you will fail to capture the uniqueness of the second language.

The solution to the problem was the creation of a new language system especially designed to facilitate the comparison of different sound systems. The new language incorporates all of the basic sound units of all languages but does not do so in their own terms. The use of the "meta language" to analyze the distinctive features of all languages is *phonetics*, while the study of one language is *phonemics*.

The principle that distinguishes anthropology from other disciplines has two components: (1) each culture must be described in terms of the phenomena seen by its members to be meaningful, but (2) comparisons between cultures require another set of terms and symbols including all of these independently meaningful phenomena. *Emic* analysis will provide a description of a culture in its own terms; *etic* analysis will demonstrate the similarities and differences among cultures in a way that will lead to the minimum number of concepts necessary to describe man.[1]

The task of a cultural anthropologist thus becomes the production of emic descriptions that when analyzed along with other emic descriptions lead to a parsimonious etic description of the human group.

THE FOCUS OF ANTHROPOLOGICAL STUDY

In a fundamental sense cultural anthropologists are concerned with the human process of communication and therefore provide emic descriptions of the structure and content of communication systems. This entails the careful identification of patterns of behavior, as these patterns are shared by varying numbers of people in varying situations.

The minimal interactive unit required for the analysis of any communicative behavior is a dyad, and the task is to describe those behaviors that have meaning to the participants in the dyad. Meaning is located in those behaviors that have an observable impact on the synchrony of interaction. Once a descriptive map of meaning can be produced for a pair of people, the task becomes the identification of meaningful patterns in other dyads, as the original pair of people interact with various others. As the communication system is described by patterns of meaningful behavior in a variety of situations, those patterns of behavior shared by all of the members of a group can be identified, as well as those patterns shared by fewer numbers of people.[2]

The determination of the content of communication simultaneously depends upon time and level of analytic focus. By observing those behaviors that disrupt the synchrony of interaction, one can infer the cause of and the solution for those disruptions. Thus, over time patterns of synchrony disruption and restoration can lead to supportable emic descriptions of the essential content of dyadic communication.

I have argued elsewhere that a Mormon physical education teacher's simple question "Why aren't you dressed to play today?" dealt simultaneously with several levels of concern.[3] When this question was asked of Ute Indian students, it caused a change in the usual synchrony of dyadic interaction. At one level the question concerned the school rules regarding participation in physical education classes. But at a far more fundamental level the question dealt with disparate cultural premises concerning relationships between man and man. For Anglo-Mormons life is conducted in a way that suggests the appropriateness of one man's control over another; the Utes behave in ways that suggest the appropriateness of almost total independence. The teacher's question was simultaneously focused on a rather minor school rule and a fundamental difference in the way life is lived.

The event was no different from a hundred other events where the teacher asked Ute students questions, except that the pattern of verbal and nonverbal behavior was asynchronic as long as the topic concerned the right of individuals to be free to choose to play or the right of the teacher to require the students to play. This behavioral asynchrony was inferred to be caused by the cultural-premise nature of the question rather than by the form of the question or its explicit content (the school rules). However, the inference is only supportable because it is based on observed patterns of dyadic communication over time. Thus, this example suggests the importance of time and analytic focus in determing the content of a communicative sequence.

The structure and the content of communication must be studied carefully as varying numbers of people interact with one another over time. By identifying the structure of patterned synchronic and asynchronic behavior the content of communication systems can be determined. When we are able to identify the patterns of meaningful behavior used by members of a culture, we will have an emic description of the structure and content of that culture.

THE POTENTIAL VALUE IN THE ANTHROPOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF SPORT

As anthropologists seek to describe human universals through the emic and etic analysis of communication, they will be aided by the inclusion of sport, and their inclusion of sport will be of value to physical educators. Anthropologists cannot describe a single culture completely unless they include all of the people's behavior in all spheres of life: political, economic, religious, and recreational. A complete etic description of humanity cannot be produced until we have complete emic descriptions.

As anthropologists include sport, they will be providing descriptions that detail the complexity and diversity of the behaviors we call sport. These descriptions should be of value to physical educators because they are concerned about the universal nature of sport and the educative potential of specific sports in a situation involving cultural diversity.

A few research projects illuminate the potential value of sport analysis for anthropology by demonstrating that the structure and content of behavioral patterns in sport are essentially the same as those of behavioral patterns in other spheres of cultural life. Research conducted by educational anthropologists at the University of Florida has demonstrated that racial integration in an urban southern city is patterned according to the task that must be accomplished. Black and white residents segregate themselves residentially and socially except when a common task brings them into contact. Integration occurs when people work, receive health care, use public transportation, or attend school. In school, racial polarization occurs except when the students have a common task: to smoke (a smoking area exists on the school ground), to relieve themselves, or to play football.

The football team reflects the overall community and school pattern of integration: segregation, by choice, except for common tasks. Thus, before and after practice sessions or games the boys remain in their own groups, but for football they disregard ethnicity and associate according to "task and talent."[4]

Recently completed research in Appalachia will demonstrate that school basketball provides an opportunity for intricate patterns of kinship organization and political independence to be woven together to sustain a community's integrity. The forum provided by basketball is in structure and content analogous to other community activities.[5]

A research team in Montreal has demonstrated that the manipulation of professional wrestlers' identities is organized to represent in structure and content the basis of prejudicial behavior in the involved communities. For example, they cite an occurrence in the Montreal Forum:

> First to enter the ring was Baron Fritz Von Erich who was introduced as a Nazi from Germany to a largely Jewish audience. Sporting a swastika on his arm and wearing high black boots the baron stomped around the ring screaming obscenities in German [and] raising his arm in Hitlerian fashion. Pointing to the skull-capped members of the audience, the baron promised to send his opponent back to Auchwitz [*sic*]. Following the baron's dramatic five-minute pre-match performance, his opponent, Rabbi Raphael Halpern ran into the arena with prayer book in hand, skull-cap on [his] head and wearing a blue and white costume covered with stars of David. The crowd roared its approval. Needless to say the forces of good prevailed and the Rabbi was victorious.[6]

These research examples illuminate the potential value of sport analysis for anthropology by demonstrating that behavior is similarily patterned across several, if not all, spheres of cultural life. Although some of these research projects were not designed to be culturally comprehensive, they do suggest, in specific detail, that patterns of behavior associated with sport are the same as behavioral patterns in other spheres of life.

Many physical educators are concerned with the universality of sport; even though we are a long way from the etic formulation that will accurately describe the fundamental and unique elements of human play, games, sport, or exercise, we are on our way through a number of research projects that emically define the structure and content of behavior in sport.

My own research among Ute Indians and Anglo-Mormons in Utah demonstrates that the form and content of basketball behavior communicates dramatically different meanings for the two cultural groups. For the Anglo-Mormon community basketball is structured and played according to an apparent orientation toward mutuality. Teamwork, individual sacrifice for the good of the team, group strategy, and group status are key principles adhered to in basketball. The Ute community, however, stresses individuality in team structure, in play, in skill acquisition, and in status. Basketball has no intrinsic meaning but has at least several culturally specific meanings, expressed dozens of ways.[7]

In another research project, Kendall Blanchard found that basketball structure and strategy differed between the Navajo and Mormons. This research, like my own, demonstrates that basketball has unique meaning for each group and that those meanings stem from differences in cultural background.[8]

Thomas Carroll has argued a unique perspective on the cultural premises of work and play in an urban city in the United States. The emic definition he has observed in operation is that work is anything that contributes to the maintenance of the proper order of the universe, and that work requires know-how. Work has nothing to do with pay, type of activity, or location of activity; it has to do with behavior that supports and sustains man's relationship to other men, to nature, and to the supernatural, etc.

If you don't have know-how, you cannot work, but you can help one who has know-how or you can learn. Thus, he found that children are being implicitly taught that some activities support the proper order of the universe and that they must come to know how to do those activities in order to be proper citizens. Other activities, they are taught, do not concern the proper order and

therefore do not require know-how and can be defined as nonwork.[9] The physical education program, as it is structured around learning proper skills and techniques as a prerequisite to playing a game, presumably falls into the category of work, not play.

These research efforts describe sports as they are emically significant to cultural groups. Together with other similar descriptions they will lead to an etic description of the universality of certain patterns of human behavior, replete with the complexity and diversity of cultural life. Physical educators can use these and other works to examine their notions about the universal meaning, value, or significance of sport, and they can now get a feel for the tremendous variations attributable to cultural differences in the educational potential for any number of sports. This, I should think, is of potential value to the profession of physical education.

CONCLUSION

As anthropologists increasingly provide emic descriptions of the structure and content of communication in sport, we will be closer to our goal of providing a parsimonious etic description of humanity. As physical educators encourage, sustain, and integrate anthropological studies, their search for an understanding of the universality of sport will be enhanced. The potential exists, if we can establish a common understanding and maintain mutual respect and encouragement.

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CONTRIBUTIONS TO THOUGHT ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION BY SELECTED CONTEMPORARY EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHERS*

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In several of the more popular history textbooks on physical education the great educational philosophers of the past are often cited. The great educational thinkers, such as Plato, Aristotle, Quintilian, Froebel, Milton, Bacon, Montaigne, Locke, and others, are often quoted demonstrating the depth and extent of philosophical thought on physical education through recorded history.

However, the authors of these same histories in the discussion of physical education in the twentieth century rarely quote ideas from outstanding educational philosophers of this century. This study grew out of the writer's belief that a number of educational philosophers of this century, like the philosophers of the past, can make contributions to our understanding of physical education and its place in education.

Some of the representative ideas of ten outstanding educational philosophers of this century are presented in this paper. The philosophers were selected by a jury of experts who are specialists in the history and philosophy of education. The men chosen are: William James, Alfred Whitehead, John Dewey, William Bagley, Herman Horne, William Kilpatrick, Boyd Bode, Bertrand Russell, Theodore Brameld, and Robert Hutchins.

In a preliminary study it was found that leaders in the field of physical education generally believe that the major objectives of a physical education program are the same as those of education in general. These leaders generally perceived that an ideal program should aid the individual in attaining numerous specific objectives. In grouping these specific objectives into major areas the writer found that generally there are six major areas of objectives: mental, physical, emotional, social, moral, and leisure development.

In studying the ideas of the educational philosophers previously named, particular attention was given to each philosopher's ideas concerning these major objectives of physical education. This writer should like to stress that these are only a few representative statements, selected from a much longer study.

*Materials for this paper were drawn from the writer's dissertation of the same title. The dissertation may be obtained on microfilm from University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

MENTAL DEVELOPMENT

Objectives generally listed under mental development include knowledges, thinking, interpreting, and decision-making.

William James writes that an individual's readiness and vitality in the face of a task is improved by physical fitness:

> Consider, for example, the effects of a well-toned motor apparatus, nervous and muscular, on our general personal self-consciousness, the sense of elasticity and efficiency that results.[1]

Alfred Whitehead has suggested that we should not forget the nature of the pupils we attempt to teach:

> I lay it down as an educational axiom that in teaching you will come to grief as soon as you forget that your pupils have bodies. This is exactly the mistake of post renaissance Platonic curriculum. But nature can be kept at bay by no pitchfork; so in English education, being expelled from the classroom, she returned with cap and bells in the form of all-conquering athleticism.[2]

John Dewey is probably the philosopher who most strongly supports the use of physical education activities in the education of children. He, like James, emphasizes that the instinctive needs, as well as interests, of the child must be utilized for the best education. When most educators are talking of play as an extracurricular activity, he is advocating that such activities are actually essential:

> . . . the primary root of all educative activity is in the instinctive, impulsive attitudes and activities of the child. . . . accordingly, numberless spontaneous activities of children, plays [*sic*] games, mimic efforts, even the apparently meaningless motions of infants—exhibitions previously ignored as trivial, futile, or even condemned as positively evil—are capable of educational use; nay are the foundation-stones of educational method.[3]

He further notes that many schools realize the value of physical activities in developing healthy bodies in their students; however, only a few pioneers in education clearly understand the extent to which young children learn through the use of their bodies and the impossibility of general intelligence without their use.[4]

William Bagley also thinks that play could be a valuable stimulus to learning, and especially for children it makes learning more interesting. Although Bagley emphasizes that education should begin with the sensuous and concrete (therefore, play activity is of much importance), it should move toward the ideal and abstract. There is less need for play as the child's education becomes more abstract; the proposition of all "education through play" is pernicious.[5]

Bagley does, however, note an indirect relationship between physical education and mental development:

> Assured and confident physical control as expressed in the erect posture and the alert movement suggests mental strength and mental alertness just as clearly as the slouchy posture and slow, uncertain movements suggest undirected or "flighty mental activity."[6]

Herman Horne believes that the efficiency of the brain's functioning depends upon the state of the brain and the state of the body, and brain energy corresponds with physical energy. The memory, as well as apperception, is aided by good health and exercise, and the weak body finds it difficult to maintain attention.[7]

He also argues against the contention that games discourage scholarship; instead, ". . . athletics develop desirable qualities such as quickness, alertness, self-knowledge, and the ability to think in a crisis."[8]

William Kilpatrick, like Dewey, is an advocate of education through activity. After making a study of the summer vacation activities of school children, he suggests that these play activities should actually be considered the main part of the school curriculum. Children learn what they live whether at home, school, or playground and the most important thing is the quality of the living.[9]

Boyd Bode, after discussing various views on mind and body relationships, concludes that ". . . whatever view we may take regarding the nature of the mind, it is an undoubted fact that our mental life is conditioned by the body."[10]

Theodore Brameld writes of physical education as one of the spokes in the curriculum wheel. He explains that games require reflection, imagination, and energy and that learning occurs not so much deliberately as by the fact that the human organism functions as a unified whole and every experience affects the personality.[11]

Generally, Robert Hutchins is critical of schools that give credit for physical education activities, especially at the college or university level. The utopian university should be a center of independent thought and anything that is not thought should have no place.[12] However, in a letter to this writer he does admit that intellectual development at certain ages ". . . perhaps must be performed in the context of physical development."[13]

PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT

Objectives generally listed under physical development include coordination, fitness, health, organic vigor, growth, posture, and strength.

William James eloquently describes how a future humanity without muscular development would be a horror to perceive. He believes that a technological society might cause some individuals to see little use for muscular development. If this became common and we should lose our hardihood, we should also lose our courage.[14]

Dewey notes that the first rule, if we reverence childhood, is to make sure of a healthy bodily development. He further suggests that strength and fitness should be primary concerns in progressive schools. The students should receive regular physical examinations and those lacking in fitness should be given extra time in the gymnasium or on the playground. He goes so far as to approve of the practice in one school where "the pupil who is physically unfit to sit at a desk and study goes to school, and spends all his time outdoors with a teacher to help him get strong."[15]

Bagley has written that next in importance to knowledge about bacteria and their relation to health is ". . . the fact that a healthy vigorous body may successfully resist invasion by these disease breeding parasites."[16] He also believes that resistance to fatigue is greatest when one enjoys health and physical fitness.

Horne stresses that the first requirement for an ideally educated person is physical fitness. He supports competitive athletic contests and lists the benefits as strength, force, power, agility, dexterity, ease, grace, and swiftness.[17] Physical education should not be for males only, as the ladies also receive strength, poise, beauty, and health.[18]

The development of vitality is often the subject of Bertrand Russell in his praise of outdoor activity. He writes, in part, that "vitality is rather a physiological than a mental characteristic" and "where it exists, there is pleasure in feeling alive, quite apart from any specific pleasant circumstance. It heightens pleasure and diminishes pains."[19] A superabundance of energy is needed to offset the many handicaps and restraints in civilized life. He describes one man who had this type of energy; a man the age of 70 who would work tirelessly all day and cycle to and from work for a total of 32 miles.[20]

Hutchins cites a study made by Kraus and Hirshland in which American children are shown to be far inferior to European children on a muscular fitness test. He concludes that this study indicates a need for attention to health in a technological age.[21] However, more typical of Hutchins is the following statement: "Whatever may be the responsibilities of a college, a university is not a custodial establishment, or a church, or a body building institute."[22]

EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Objectives generally listed under emotional development include mental health, self-control, perseverance, initiative, self-confidence, and courage.

James states that "our moods and resolutions are more determined by the condition of our circulation than by our logical grounds."[23]

> . . . I cannot believe that our muscular vigor will ever be a superfluity. Even if the day ever dawns in which it will not be needed for fighting the old heavy battles against Nature, it will still always be needed to furnish the background of sanity, serenity, and cheerfulness to life, to give moral elasticity to our dispositions, to round off the wiry edge of our fretfulness, and make us good-humored and easy of approach.[24]

The emotions, Dewey believes, may be affected in two main ways by physical activity or rather the lack of it. First, the child is naturally active; therefore, to suppress his physical activity adversely affects his mental health. He asserts that "suppression is not annihilation" and ". . . a suppressed activity is the cause of all kinds of intellectual and moral pathology."[25] Second, the will he believes to be a bodily phenomenon; therefore, its development requires bodily activity.

Bagley describes how, as a result of fear or anger, physiological changes occur in the body that prepare it for activity. Strong emotions can be dissipated by action and play is one means of displacement activity.[26] He also notes that the emotional development of the hypersensitive student could be aided through the hardening experiences of vigorous sports.[27]

Horne, similar to James, emphasizes the physical basis of emotional development and points out that modern physiological psychology has a working hypothesis that brain states condition mental states. This ". . . demands that the sound body house the sound emotion."[28] Rigid discipline with restrictions on movement, the pattern in some schools, is unhealthy. The obstructed will

needs an outlet; play is indispensable for this. Horne agrees with Bagley in the idea that the timid child could be aided by play. Finally, he lists a number of qualities of emotional control that are the results of competitive athletics:

> Third, they develop moral qualities of self-control, self-reliance, force, endurance, courage, the sense of the value of training, the discipline of defeat, if not humility in victory, the sense of the value of concerted action, nerve, practicality, and will power.[29]

Kilpatrick notes how physical health is basic to mental health in insisting that an unhealthy body upsets individual life. Inner urges must be satisfied and the most insistent inner urge is the need for interesting and exciting activity. Maladjusted children need play and, characteristically, mature children love to play:

> The more fortunate boy is on the whole sweeter tempered, though he can get angry; but in both moods he is more reasonable. Play means much to him—especially with other boys, but also with girls.[30]

The life and writing of Bertrand Russell continually centered on fighting against bigotry, narrowness, intolerance, and suppression of man's natural animal instincts. He emphasizes that in the suppression of instinctual urges there is the greatest threat to a desirable emotional development. Man is naturally aggressive and destructive but could be saved from destroying himself if his instinctual drives were channeled into constructive outlets. Russell writes that if every working man were ". . . enabled to engage in some dangerous and exciting pursuit involving quick personal initiative, the popular love of war would become confined to women and invalids."[31] Russell prefers such activities as mountain climbing or sailing rather than the popular sports as an outlet for the aggressive nature of man.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Objectives generally listed under social development include sociability, cooperation, courtesy, leadership, fellowship, loyalty, and poise.

James has noted that muscular vigor resulting from games furnishes the background to make us cheerful, good-humored, and easy to approach. Similarly, poise and confidence have the same source:

> Weakness is too apt to be what the doctors call irritable weakness. And that blessed internal peace and confidence, that *acquiscentia in seipse*, as Spinoza used to call it, that wells up from every part of the body of a muscularly well-trained human being, and soaks the indwelling soul of him with satisfaction, is quite apart from every consideration of its mechanical utility, an element of spiritual hygiene of supreme significance.[32]

Whitehead, in dialogue, talks about the friction and division in American middle classes. He claims that such divisions do not exist in England partly due to the fact that the aristocratic and working classes get acquainted through their sports. He also notes that sports help to foster understanding in the schools and that he had received leadership training himself as a captain of a football team.[33]

Dewey recognizes the link between play and socialization; however, he believes that unless children are guided in playing well, they simply imitate the prejudices of their parents. He also describes how a sport such as baseball can be useful in developing social control of a group. Such control is possible without the violation of individual freedom.[34]

Bagley argues that initiative is a quality that could best be developed in athletic and literary clubs. He also notes the value of athletics in socialization. In addition, he states that social amenities could be taught at school dances in that "the delight in rhythm is one of the fundamental traits of youth, and the dance is a world-old educative force that modern education can hardly afford to cast aside."[35]

Horne has suggested that the personality is affected by a healthy body. Children working and playing together in a supervised setting could develop confidence and learn unselfishness. Similarly, even in the sport he considers most objectionable, there are valuable social outcomes:

> Football, the most objectionable of athletic sports, is the prince of games in moral quality. Its team, which is an organized unit, is the finest training in associated effort.[36]

Kilpatrick states that the social value of games is evident in that children by their very nature are eager for companionship, and games provide the means for association with others. In addition, he believes that desirable cooperative behavior results from the playground ". . . because every movement, every act is conditioned by the presence and behavior of others."[37] The social life and freedom of women also improves as a result of camps and athletics.

Russell is the only philosopher who really questions the efficacy of teaching cooperation through play or sports. He writes that athletic games are supposed to teach cooperation, when actually they only teach it in the competitive form—the form used in war. Instead of having a victim, as in school games, he prefers that the enemy should be nature. However, he stresses that one need not pedantically follow his advice, as competition is natural to man and one could scarcely find a more innocent outlet than games.[38]

Brameld suggests that the playground provides a laboratory for social innovation in which convergence and cooperation could be implemented in practice. He further notes that one of the deficits of education in Puerto Rico is due to a lack of sufficient cooperative activities, such as games and dances. Intercultural socialization should be an aim of education; in the following statement he asserts the importance of recreation and sports in attaining this goal:

> One of the widest channels through which intercultural relations progress in schools is in games and sports. In the northern section of America, it is already commonplace for youngsters of all races, religions, and nationalities to play together on both intramural and interscholastic teams, and to build mutual respect for prowess, courage, and good sportsmanship.[39]

In a brief notation, Hutchins indicates that sports have some part in the socialization of immigrants along with the law, media, and advertising.[40]

MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Objectives generally listed under moral development include honesty, citizenship, sportsmanship, respect for others, and justice.

James states that even the moral character of a nation can be improved through sports, as shown by the British Empire in its worship of the athletic outdoor life and sport. More specifically he writes that games ". . . are the chief means of training in fairness and magnanimity."[41]

Dewey believes that play and art have a distinct advantage in moral development over conventional methods. They are not bound by a strict, unchanging moral code and thus are more easily adapted as vehicles for a modern morality. He further expands on this idea:

> Moreover, while perhaps they may not be absolutely necessary for survival, many other activities, such as games, contests, dances, festivals, celebrations, songs, and recitals of brave deeds, provide emotional stimulation and satisfaction; they strengthen social feelings and social ties. All these activities and agencies, although not primarily intended to promote morality, are yet important as making for the formation and development of intelligence, character, and right relations between men. They may be called cosmic and social roots of morals.[42]

Bagley outlines how play instincts of fighting, hunting, and the like could be translated into play ideals where the impulse for vigorous exercise counteracts the unhealthful tendencies of civilized life. Similarly, he suggests that rivalry, like play, could be modified in order to develop sportsmanship ideals.:

> He must be led to feel that cheating, deception, "hitting below the belt," tale-bearing, and "knocking" are dishonorable and forbidden means of rivalry. He must learn to "play the game" fairly and squarely and to prefer honorable victory; and he must generalize these standards of conduct beyond the athletic situation, and apply them to every situation in which he competes with his fellows.[43]

Horne believes that athletics advances morals by making the students appreciate strength, courage, virility, skill, and loyalty to an institution. Clean sportsmanship is also encouraged.

On the other hand, a lack of physical fitness has quite different effects on moral development:

> There is a predisposing cause of badness in so common and prosaic a fact as *unfit physical condition*. Our social responses may be maladusted because we have adenoids, inflamed tonsils, bad teeth, poor hearing, defective eyesight, indigestion, autointoxication, or maybe, just because we are all tired out. A flabby muscle is poor support for a strong will.[44]

Kilpatrick asserts that in the old Alexandrian system of education, where the emphasis was completely on books, memory, and tests, there was little concern for moral or character development:

> It would be hard to conceive a situation, except solitary confinement, worse adapted to character building. Fortunately "extra-curricular" activities were contrived which did encourage character building. . . .[45]

He also implies at another point that it is impossible to coach a game without teaching morals in that the one cannot be separated from the other.

In order to develop into a moral person, Russell believes the child needs constructive outlets for his instinctive needs. Skill development, he points out, allows for direction of the instincts: "The great cultivator of instinct is skill: skill which provides certain kinds of satisfaction but not others. Give him the wrong kinds, or none at all, and he will be wicked."[46]

Hutchins admits that extracurricular activities may very well confer moral benefits but that this still does not justify their inclusion in the college curriculum. He argues that the YMCA, Scouts, country clubs, and other like organizations can do this job more effectively. He further states:

> The moral virtues are habits. The environment of education should be favorable to them. But only a diffused sentimentality will result from the attempt to make instruction in the moral virtues the object of education. And, in addition, resources that might go into intellectual training will be lavished on athletics, social life, and student guidance, a king of coddling, nursing, and pampering of students that is quite unknown anywhere else in the world.[47]

Hutchins does think that the college has a place in moral development and that is to train the mind in intelligent choices.[48]

LEISURE DEVELOPMENT

Objectives generally listed under leisure development include enjoyment of recreation, attitudes and habits toward play, relaxation, and appreciation of beauty, nature, skill, and sports.

James writes long passages praising the beauty of nature and how one is revitalized through contact with the outdoors. A mountain climber himself, he suggests some of the benefits of such activity in the following passage:

> In the mountains, in youth, on some intoxicating autumn morning, after invigorating slumber, we feel strong enough to jump over the moon, and, casting about us for a barrier, a rock, a tree, or any object on which to measure our bodily prowess, we perform with perfect spontaneity feats which at another time might demand an almost impossible exertion of muscle and of will.[49]

Workmen need relaxation and refreshment, Whitehead observes, and he suggests that "the normal recreation should be a change of activity satisfying the cravings of instincts. Games afford such activity."[50]

Dewey in describing that he calls the older type of schools notes that juvenile delinquency is the natural result from the friction engendered by the suppression of activity. However, in describing schools of the future he writes of how the children's energies could be channeled by an effective leisure-time activity program:

> There are rooms for the boys to hold meetings and to play games, and a well-equipped gymnasium. The teachers of the school take turns supervising these evening gatherings. . . . Giving the boys a place for wholesome activities has done much to break up the habit of street loafing and the gangs which were so common in the district.[51]

Bagley notes that supervised sports during recess periods at school prevent degenerating influences from growing. An either/or situation exists in the use of leisure time in that ". . . recreation and relaxation must be on the highest possible plane if the degenerating effects of dissipation and prodigality are to be counteracted."[52]

Horne has stated that people will play or be amused at something. More important to him is in what manner. He suggests religious, educative, and historical movies should be provided, as well as supervised indoor and outdoor sports. He warns that we should not forget ". . . the educational agency of athletics in suppressing criminal physiological inclination."[53]

Horne also emphasizes the importance of experience in a natural outdoor environment:

> Associate with nature. This is a true principle of human development, because the physical environment so influences man. . . . We have not yet realized in the west the Oriental benefits of living and teaching in the open, especially as an aid to the quieter mental virtues of contemplation, meditation, and reflection; our religious worship has particularly suffered thereby, becoming both narrow and artificial.[54]

Kilpatrick also believes that recreational activities on the playground could deter delinquent behavior:

> There is excellent reason for believing that much youthful crime is but the unfortunate and misdirected working of these psychological principles.[55]

Such crime he believes is the result of society's failure; he suggests that vacation activities must point the way for a solution.

Russell writes of the profound satisfactions that one can receive through contact with nature:

> I have seen a boy two years old, who had been kept in London, taken out for the first time to walk in green country. The season was winter, and everything was wet and muddy. To the adult eye there was nothing to cause delight, but in the boy there sprang up a strange ecstasy; he kneeled in the wet grass, and gave utterance to half-articulate cries of delight. The joy he was experiencing was primitive, simple and massive. The organic need that was being satisfied is so profound that those in whom it is starved are seldom completely sane.[56]

Russell in 1935 writes that the modern industrial state would do well to have a four-hour work day. The additional leisure time should be used in active pursuits rather than in watching a game or movies. He believes that an activity such as folk dancing is a much better use of leisure.[57]

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REACTION TO "CONTRIBUTIONS TO THOUGHT ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION BY SELECTED CONTEMPORARY EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHERS": DUALISM PERPETUATED

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To begin with, I would like to address my remarks to some suggestions for structural change in Dr. Costner's paper. First, I think he could possibly have presented the comments of only five of the educational philosophers and then gone into more detail presenting their position on the major physical education objectives. Second, possibly another way of approaching this type of paper would be to focus one's efforts upon the uniqueness of each author's position

relative to the objectives for the purpose of comparison—contrast with the other philosophers. Third, I feel it might be helpful if after each presentation of an objective, a discussion of the potential implications of the philosophers' comments would be included. Finally, I would suggest that some sort of an overall summary might be in order. In other words, what does all this mean for those of us concerned with physical activity as well as with philosophy?

I would like to present a discussion of some of the possible implications from the "Mental Development" and "Physical Development" sections of Dr. Costner's paper. With all due respect, for the purposes of this presentation I would like to retitle those sections "Dualism Perpetuated." Even a cursory examination of the comments made by nearly all the educational philosophers leads me to believe that the mind-body unity is only a philosophic idea, not a fundamental actuality of life.

What I am attempting to do is to discuss something that is not talk, something that is only represented by words and symbols. I am referring to the concrete sensual organism called the human body as "it" is experienced as a living organismic whole. I am suggesting that for a moment we focus on what is happening as opposed to the various ways in which what is happening is described by means of words and symbols. Can we, for once, not confuse our facility for description with what is actually going on, or that which needs to be described? In another way, what I would like to examine is the world, or in this case the person, as labeled and classified, compared with the world or person in reality.

I would like to suggest that mind-body dualism is a "myth of polarity." From my perspective, *polar* refers to something that has ends, parts, or extremities that are related and joined to form a single whole. Polar opposites are therefore inseparable opposites, similar to the two sides of a coin. From this observation we can look at the life-world (the world as personally experienced) and see a fundamental ambiguity that might be symbolized by the concept of "the oneness of opposites." That is, the supposedly explicit polar opposition of the mind and the body conceals an implicit unity of the integrated self-body, or person. So it is then that we have a polar and mutually sustaining relationship between two entities considered to be opposed or basically opposite. In reality, as experienced they are the yin and yang of mind-body in perpetual interplay. Just because our language is inadequate in depicting the unity of body and mind does not deny an integrated existence in reality. Because we think in terms, words, or symbols we seem necessarily to divide in our thought what is undivided in nature. As L.L. Whyte suggests:

> In biological development dualism or conflict is always superimposed on a prior unity. The existence of an organism capable of survival implies integration, and unity is therefore always prior to inner conflict. Conflict may arise as the result of an inappropriate adaption, and it may prove fatal or it may be overcome. But the recovery of organic health never involves the synthesis of fundamentally opposed principles, since these cannot co-exist in an organism. It only seems to do so because the actual condition of the organism has been misinterpreted in using a dualistic language. The historical process does not involve the synthesis of pre-existing logical opposites, though it may appear to in the confused language of immature dialectical theories.[1]

I really think it is about time we made a concerted effort to deny the perpetuation and reinforcement of the dualism "my body," which is of course grammatically correct but, in my opinion, psychologically disastrous for us as human beings seeking some semblance of unity.

I would like to support the position that suggests the human body has its own intrinsic organic intelligence, which is dichotomized, denied, and finally destroyed by us through avoidance (inactivity), denial (mind-tripping), fragmentation (mind-body split), and of course disregard (improper health care). This inside-out and outside-in confusion will remain if we continue to support (don't attempt to deny) a split between body and mind.

How can we reverse this orientation and initiate a process directed toward personal integration? I would like to propose that initially this might involve an acceptance and specialized appreciation of the basic feelings of our body along with the positing of spontaneous involvement in body movement as a foundation for existence. By truly letting go, it is possible for us to reverse the normal orientation of ego control and begin feeling the excitation and joy of our own organism.

A fluid, living, spontaneous body, with feelings flowing, will have a tendency to reinforce the unified, integrated, spontaneous experience of body-as-self, according to its own principles and not according to the principles of an objective observer, the ego, which exists as something apart from (a spectator of) the movements of the body. No longer can the exercise and experience of spontaneous feeling be subordinated to the value priorities of the empirical ego —the implication being that the more rhythmic the motoric functions of our body, the greater the capacity for pleasurable integrated movement experiences.

In most instances, the level of the experience of body-mind integration is such that the basic integrity and organic intelligence (wisdom) of the body is denied by being so strongly under ego control.

What I would really like to see happen is that we as human beings attempt to incorporate and subsequently actualize a new bodily attitude in which awareness and acceptance of bodily feelings might propel us on the way to a more joyous identity of body-self. In essence, I am suggesting a new morality with a different set of values based upon the wisdom and personalized integrity of the body rather than upon the directives of a detached ego. A working principle of this new morality would be that "you are your body." Period!

If my wish were ever to come true, in the future we would encounter movement situations in which any conscious volitional effort would become subordinate to an opening up, a letting go, a giving oneself up to the immediacy of the moment and the wisdom of the body. I think, possibly, that a certain kind of body-mind unification could result in the very process of being moved from within, of the person doing something which is not fragmented, not contradictory, but very worthwhile precisely because one's own integrity is being confirmed.

All of this suggests to me that the "importance principle," which arbitrarily places ego before body (rational before sensual), must be overthrown and possibly reversed. Furthermore, it implies that acceptance of basic bodily feelings is the starting point for the more significant step of expressing those feelings. From my perspective, as human beings we must all be in touch with and be able to accept the constant interplay of at least two vital human energies, one active and irrational, one passive and rational—both mutually complementary in their continuous interaction.

I am inviting you to be an active participant in a new-world celebration in which you reclaim and live the body that is uniquely yours and not the body of the social world. Do not base your bodily identity on a socially imposed role, for that role may eventually abandon you under the stressfulness of real-life situations. Rather, I encourage you to incorporate, express, and actualize that

identity you are, which can be rediscovered by letting go and experiencing your bodily feelings in an honest and accepting fashion.

For too long now we have allowed ourselves only minimal awareness of the expression, attitude, and the overall state of our bodies. Tension, rigidities, and anxieties that are not felt or that are concealed by processes of intellectualization constitute direct denials of the truth of the integrated body-self. By continuously disregarding those bodily feelings authentically your own, you reinforce and often compound a limited sense of self-awareness, thereby limiting your ability to experience yourself as an integrated whole.

Unfortunately, many of you are not aware of your own lack of aliveness because you have never felt alive before! You continue to observe *your* body; it is not you and you are not it. You can still perceive very well, the movements, gestures, and posture of your body, but you really do not feel that you *are* actively your body! Your tense, tight, contracted body indicates a fear of letting go, a fear of experiencing yourself as an integrated, spontaneous, pleasure-seeking organism. As Alexander Lowen suggests:

> As long as the body remains an object to the ego, it may fulfill the ego's pride but it will never provide the joy and satisfaction that the "alive" body offers.
>
> The alive body is characterized by a life of its own. It has a mobility independent of ego control which is manifested by the spontaneity of its gestures and the vivacity of its expression. It hums, it vibrates, it glows. It is charged with feeling.[2]

I am inviting you to return to your body with the hope of creating a new way of seeing and moving through the world, not as an affectless physiological system, but rather as an integrated life-force of energy, flowing, pulsating, and feeling.

I am inviting those educational philosophers who, in my opinion, only pay lip-service to the idea of integration, to take a chance on trusting an intuitive understanding of the reciprocal interaction of body and mind in joyous unity.

I invite you all to open up and discover that which is already there—a level of pleasurable excitement or feeling-tone in which the body-self seems to dance, in which you experience firsthand, for yourself, how good it feels to cooperate with the laws of nature flowing within yourself.

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REACTION TO "CONTRIBUTIONS TO THOUGHT ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION BY SELECTED CONTEMPORARY EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHERS"

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Please forgive me for not restricting my remarks to Mr. Costner's paper. I shall instead make somewhat more general remarks. In such a way you will have the freedom to hold up Mr. Costner's paper against my comments and judge for yourselves what its merit may or may not be.

A short time ago I was watching a television program on which a young comedian was warmly recounting for his national viewing audience his own school days. As you might expect, he eventually got around to physical education. He informed us that his physical education instructor—whose name, I think, was Mr. Bigbody—did not speak English. He spoke *gym*.

There is no need to go into all the peculiar idiosyncracies of this language all of us know so intimately well. I will only remind you that it is largely monosyllabic and never includes a complete sentence. Some of the more popular exclamatory phrases are: "At-a-way-to-go," "Line-up," "Count-off," "Take a lap," and "Get in there an' fight."

But our comedian friend is out of touch with things. He doesn't know that we have become bilingual. Not only can we speak gym as the conditions and circumstances dictate, but we can also speak *learned*. Our comedian would be startled to know that in the short space of thirty years (about one generation) we have put together a remarkable array of trappings that give all the appearances of a solid and respectable area of study. Let me mention just a few of these trappings to give you an idea of how respectable we have become. They include dissertations, journals, books, associations, and conventions.

On Dissertations

We have a regular production of theses and dissertations—all duly noting that they are only "in partial fulfillment of the requirements." In them we use a style of writing designed to be so abstract that the words used refer in fact to nothing that is, in reality. It is a form of communication that does not communicate. It is, of course, polysyllabic and usually includes complete sentences, but it is both monomorphic and monotonic. Its overall purpose is to give the effect that something significant has transpired, but it makes every effort to hide what that significance might be. What is more, somehow it even writes itself, scarcely requiring any effort of original composition. And being largely patched together from other works, its distinctive mark is that it really never smoothly or logically progresses toward a genuine conclusion.

On Journals

We also have a variety of journals in which we publish our shorter versions of learned. We do not have very many such journals, but, until recently, enough to allow most of us to publish most anything we wish to publish in

spite of its inherent quality, general importance, immediate need, or long-range usefulness. Recently, however, we have hit the high-water mark of respectability. We have to wait in line to publish, sometimes one year, oftentimes two years or more. So, by the dictates of our logic, more journals are soon expected to make their appearance, picking up the surplus of articles and research findings apparently in such desperate need of being given to the world.

On Books

Sometimes it is easier and quicker to publish a book than to wait for acceptance of an article. What with the relatively recent enforcement of the publish-or-perish mandate in our field, as the good academicians we are trying to be, we have dutifully accepted the pressure, and we publish whether or not we have anything sensible to say. If we are not ready to fill up a book ourselves, we can always dash off one of those anthologies, thereby satisfying the institution, occasionally satisfying ourselves, but rarely satisfying the reader or the rigorous demands of patient scholarship. And, of course, others of us can keep busy reviewing the great mass of literature, in some cases even abstracting articles or books in order to make another book.

Our book trappings have finally approached the point where we each can have an impressive (and expensive) professional library. In fact, do you realize that we have written or are writing so many books that we now boast of a book club? Just before I left home for this convention I received in the mail the remarkable invitation to join the Physical Education Book Society. If I accept a membership reservation, I will be kept "informed of current significant books of interest" and have the right to purchase monthly the selections of the society at specially reduced prices. As my bonus, I get the society's first selection, the fifth edition of *The Physical Education Handbook* by Seaton et al. for $.99 (regular price is $5.95).

On Associations

It is not enough of course for a field of study to have a hodgepodge of disconnected scholars scholaring. The individual efforts are indeed necessary, but it is the collection of us that makes for coordinated and systematic progress, or so it is said. I would not bet my life on it, but I might wager a small sum that we have swollen to such a degree that we may have the largest number of different associations within our walls of any of the groups speaking learned. And at times it seems that the only things these varied associations of ours have in common are the challenges of remembering their distinctive initials in the proper order and the personal budget juggling necessary in trying to afford to pay the dues.

On Conventions

Where there are associations, there are conventions. And we most certainly do have our share of conventions (not to mention symposia and conferences). Originally, I suppose, these meetings were called in order to bring together people of common interests, but of diverse minds, to solve some problems of general concern. Today, however, we have the meetings regularly anyway whether we have problems or not. In fact, many of our problems are actually created for us by our having the convention in the first place. Consequently, it

is no surprise that now we all converge for no specific reason and seem to bring with us a common mind, but diverse interests.

Now I suspect that our comedian friend, if treated to such developments in our transition from speaking gym to speaking learned, might just roar with laughter. And I must admit, even as an insider, I am certainly bewildered—and even a little amused—by the developments during the last generation. Bertrand Russell remarked somewhere, in speaking about the bulk of his philosopher chums, that they were "clever sillies." I am beginning to come to the conclusion that we are just plain silly, not even bothering to be clever about it.

Our silliness has taken the form of having a bent of mind that is largely imitative and derivative, not creative and originating. We have expended most of our individual and collective energy on these learned trappings—the conventional and ornamental dressing. All the while we have let others, usually no more capable than ourselves, do the hard and steady thinking necessary to having anything, such as a body of knowledge, to clothe at all. The so very important work of substance is done for us, not by us.

It is, therefore, no wonder that these trappings, and others like them, have trapped us. Instead of being merely the means we have for making a sensible contribution to the preserving and perpetuating of civilization, they have become ends in themselves. The forces of the day persuade us to preserve and perpetuate the trappings, convinced as we are that they are symbols of professional healthiness. And it looks as though we will go to most any lengths to protect them.

But it was Blake who reminded us that "an error must be taken to its extreme before it can be combated." Before what is supposed to be our lifeblood becomes our hemlock, we really ought to think through our trappings and see if some combat isn't in order. Hopefully, we will discover that our preoccupation with the trappings is but a stage in our development. We will then be far beyond speaking either gym or learned. We shall be speaking truth.

THE BIOLOGY OF AGING

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The following summary of Dr. Hayflick's presentation orginally appeared in the Newsletter, *February 1975.*

. . . Dr. Hayflick is the discoverer of cell strain WI-38, which has been used to identify almost all of the 100 human cold viruses now known. Also, this cell strain is presently used, world wide, to produce vaccines for polio, rabies, smallpox, measles, and other virus diseases.

As a result of his work with this cell strain, he soon began to study how human cells age. . . . Apparently, the common impression that modern medicine has lengthened the human life span is not supported by either vital statistics or biological evidence. Accomplishments in medicine and public health have merely extended the *average* life expectancy by allowing more people to reach the upper limit, which for the general run of mankind still seems to be approximately the biblical fourscore years. Aging and a limited life span appar-

ently are characteristic of all animals that stop growing after reaching a fixed, mature size. In the case of man, after the age of 30 there is a steady, inexorable increase in the probability of death from one cause or another; the probability doubles about every eight years as one grows older. This general probability is such that even if the major causes of death in old age—heart disease, stroke, and cancer—were eliminated, the average life expectancy would not be lengthened by much more than 10 years. It would then be about 80 years instead of the expectancy of about 70 years that now prevails in advanced countries.

Work with fibroblast cells taken from human embryos has revealed that these cells will undergo between 40 to 60 doublings with the average being about 50 times. After reaching this limit of capacity for division, the cell population dies. It is therefore concluded that normal human cells have a finite lifetime amounting to approximately 50 population doublings. When these cells are preserved at sub-zero temperatures, they stop dividing and can be "banked" indefinitely. However, when the cells are taken from cold storage they begin doubling again but then stop at about 50. Apparently, the cells contain an inherent mechanism for "remembering" at what doubling level they were at when stored in the cold.

Human aging seems to result from deterioration of the genetic program that orchestrates the development of cells. As time goes on, the DNA of dividing cells may become clouded with an accumulation of copying errors (analogous to the "noise" that develops in the repeated copying of a photograph). The coding and decoding system that governs the replication of DNA operates with a high degree of accuracy but the accuracy is not absolute as the enzymes involved in the transcription of information from DNA, for the synthesis of proteins, may deteriorate with age.

Man is endowed with a longer life-span than other animals because human cells have evolved a more effective system for correcting or repairing errors as they arise. Nevertheless, man, like all other animals, has a "mean time to failure" because his normal cells eventually run out of an accurate program and the capacity for repair.

Implication. The implication from Dr. Hayflick's presentation is that human life span is basically fixed and nothing can be done about this; therefore, we must endeavor to *expand or lengthen our productive years* by maintaining high energy levels and good health. The potential role of our discipline in the scheme of things is quite clear.

THE RIO SALADO PROJECT

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The Rio Salado (Salt River) Project is an exciting concept for multiple use of land through greater Phoenix. It involves the development of a forty-mile stretch of the Salt River, traveling west through Maricopa County from the present Granite Reef Dam (or from the Orme Dam when completed); through the cities of Mesa, Tempe, and Phoenix; through unincorporated areas of Maricopa County; and through the Gila River Indian Reservation of the intersection of the Salt and Agua Fria rivers. Arizona State University is located on the south bank of the river just north of Tempe.

The Salt River was a continuously flowing river before a series of dams and lakes were built to control the flow early in the twentieth century. Since then the river has been dry except for occasional overflows caused by storms or the spilling of water from the dams to keep the man-made lakes at the desired level. Its purpose is to furnish water to the Salt River Valley. The occasional flooding of the river has resulted in very little building along its banks. This fact makes the Rio Salado Project economically feasible and separates it from the pattern of development occurring in most cities where the earliest land claimed was along the river banks.

The Salt River has had a divisive influence in separating north Tempe from the main city of Tempe and south Phoenix from Phoenix proper. Very few bridges have spanned the river as roadbeds were laid across the river channel. When the river flowed, the cities were indeed separated.

In addition to flood control, the Rio Salado Project presents a concept for the restoration of life in one of the area's greatest natural resources. Long-range plans call for a gradual functional change in the Salt River bed from vacant land to water-oriented recreation. The project will connect several existing park systems and will enhance the quality of living for residents of Maricopa County and visitors.

The project began as an assignment for Arizona State University fifth-year design students in the College of Architecture. The students were directed by the dean of the college, James Elmore. From 1966 to 1969, students produced an extensive regional analysis. Then the Valley Forward Association, an organization conceived to help develop an orderly pattern of growth for Maricopa County, carried the project. A consulting firm was employed to develop a comprehensive planning approach. The firm proposed a three-phase program as follows: Phase I, a "plan for planning," was to specify work, costs, and personnel needed to develop the project; Phase II called for the development of alternative concepts; Phase III requested feasibility studies, implementation, and selection of the best of the Phase II plans.

Phases I and II have been completed and are recorded in bound volumes titled *Rio Salado Project, Phase I, April 1972*, and *Rio Salado Project, Phase II, September 1974*. The recommendations recorded in Phase II are:

1. Maricopa County and cities directly affected by Rio Salado should accept the plan as a development goal.
2. A Rio Salado commission should be formed to continue to promote Rio Salado.
3. Local projects should proceed and not await completion of Orme Dam before taking major overall action.
4. Such agencies as the State Parks Board, the Rio Salado Development Corporation, and the Rio Salado Special District and County Operated Agency should assume major responsibility for the project.
5. The Maricopa County Flood Control District and the US Army Corps of Engineers shall be the authorities concerning flood control as flooding cannot be controlled locally.
6. There must be intergovernmental agreement with land-use controls maintained by cities and the county.

The heart of Rio Salado is water and various sources are available. The key is the Central Arizona Project, Orme Dam, which will be built east of Phoenix close to the junction of the Verde and Salt rivers. The dam will store 1.6 million acre-feet of water with 400,000 acre-feet for active storage and the rest for flood control. Until Orme Dam is built, there will continue to be occasional flooding; therefore provision must be made to let the water flow from the proposed series of lakes through the natural course of the river. Permanent dams can be built after the Orme Dam has been completed because flooding will then cease as 950,000 acre-feet of flood storage is projected to more than care for future storage of flood waters.

Other sources of water are wells, municipal runoffs, and municipal drainage systems. Another source is from the Salt River Project. This quasi-governmental agency was formed around the turn of the twentieth century to provide water for part of the Salt River Valley. Dams were built in the mountains and lakes were created. Roosevelt Dam, the largest, was dedicated by President Theodore Roosevelt in 1911. Water is distributed through the valley in a series of canals. One possibility is to take water from the Salt River Project at the eastern section of the project and return the water to SRP at the western end of the Rio Salado Project.

Various sources of financing have been explored thoroughly and are included in the Phase II document.

Phase II recommended two demonstration projects, one of these being the Tempe ASU Demonstration Project, located in Tempe. This project will extend from the Hayden Road Bridge in the east to the Mill Avenue Bridge, two miles west. A schematic drawing will help locate areas discussed (Fig. 1).

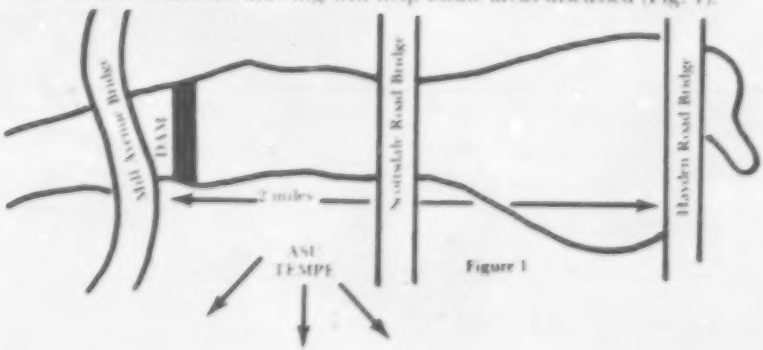

Figure 1

The phasing of this project is planned and is under way as follows:

1. Rights to river boundaries, now held by public and quasi-public agencies, must be secured by the city of Tempe and ASU.
2. Bridges must be built at both Hayden and Scottsdale roads. The Hayden Road bridge has been completed and the Scottsdale Road bridge, located halfway between Hayden Road and Mill Avenue, has been started. The projected lake will be four feet deep under the Hayden Road bridge and extend for two miles to a proposed dam near the Mill Avenue bridge. The lake will be 650 feet wide at the Scottsdale Road bridge and wider east of the bridge. There will be a 7.5-foot clearance under the bridge. Biologic growth and sediment from flooding is expected to provide an effective sealant.
3. The present somewhat meandering channel will be moved north to allow the lake to run straighter east and west. The purpose is to provide a 2,000-meter rowing course. By moving the channel north, ASU will increase its land holdings. Work has been started on diverting the channel.
4. One of the most unique aspects of the proposed lake is the building of an inflatable dam at the western boundary of the project near Mill Avenue. There must be provision to allow flood water to pass through the river until Orme Dam is built. Inflatable dams are now being used successfully on the Los Angeles River and the same principles are proposed for the Tempe/ASU Demonstration Project. The footings would be made for the permanent dam but a fifteen-foot barrier fitted with a combination of air and water will anchor the lake. When flood water must pass through, the dam will be collapsed allowing the lake to empty. The dam will back the water to an elevation of 1,152 feet and hold 1,840 acre-feet (250 acres) of water.
5. A confluent structure will need to be built opposite the mouth of Indian Bend Wash, located east of Scottsdale Road on the north side. This wash provides the flood drainage for much of the city of Scottsdale's flood waters. The connection of Indian Bend Wash, now used as a park by Scottsdale, will allow bicycle, hiking, and bridle paths to link. The confluent will guide the fast flowing water on a westerly course down the Salt River.
6. One of the plus factors for the Tempe/ASU Demonstration Project is the fact that the city of Mesa, directly east from Tempe, has a sewage disposal plant located approximately two miles east of Hayden Road. It has been proposed that the effluent be allowed to seep through the soil to purify itself and then be pumped into the proposed lake near Hayden Road. The Mesa sewage disposal plant has a capacity of 5 million gallons a day. Although the plant is to be phased out in 1980, the effluent could still be used for the Tempe/ASU Demonstration Project. This concept of using reclaimed sewage water for recreational purposes has been successfully implemented for several years in Santee, California, a suburb of San Diego. This community created several lakes, designating one for swimming, one for fishing, and another for boating. Careful medical examination of swimmers found the water to be safe. Fish caught the first year were not eaten, but fish residing in the lake have now been declared safe for eating.

7. One objective of the project is to gain total public access around the project. This may prove to be a little more difficult through the areas owned by nongovernmental individuals and groups. One of the exciting goals is to link Papago Park with the project. Papago Park is a large, natural desert park shared by the cities of Phoenix and Tempe. Linking these areas would provide an opportunity for hikers and cyclists to move from Phoenix to Scottsdale through Tempe without the threat of automobile traffic.

There must be cooperation among the agencies for development of bicycle and hiking trails. Local control has been reserved for individual cities and other agencies such as ASU connecting directly to the river. Each should make the decision as to how it can best serve its own citizens and, of course, the entire population of the county.

Arizona State University has requested from the federal government two plots of land totaling 160 acres fronting the river. It is too early to make plans for the use of the ASU land, but there is no doubt that the entire university community will benefit from the Rio Salado Project. Aquatic activities such as rowing, sailing, and canoeing will be available. A golf course with greens and fairways watered from the lake will be made. A university seminar center is also a possibility. The green belt along the north border of the campus will give ASU additional beauty and greatly expand recreational opportunities.

With Tempe/ASU leading the way, the Rio Salado can indeed become one of the finest examples of intergovernmental and private cooperation to improve the environment for people to enjoy.

DEVELOPMENT OF A COMPREHENSIVE SAILING PROGRAM

DICK MURRAY
University of California at Santa Cruz

Sailing, a very popular sport in this country, has been relatively ignored by physical education and athletic departments. The reasons for this situation are understandable: "Yachting is for the elite; there is no place for it in our schools." "Sailing isn't physical." "It's too expensive." "Sailing isn't an athletic sport." "Physical educators are not prepared to teach this activity." "Sailing belongs to the recreation department." "Our students don't care about sailing." Most of these comments are mythical in nature—seemingly good rationale for those who do not understand the nature of boating sports and for those who dare not tread into the "New Physical Education." It is true that an instructional sailing program or a full-fledged comprehensive sailing program is not the easiest to develop and operate; it takes work, dedication, and a lot of promotion. Young people today are fortunately interested in many new and different activities. If you find out that a reasonable percentage of your students have a real interest in boats and how they work, dream of the freedom of getting away on the water for a relaxing day of sailing with a friend, have a desire to become involved in the demands and skills of competitive racing, or (quite likely) wish they could someday cruise away to a tropical island on a boat of their own, then it is your responsibility as a physical educator to provide an experience, an outlet, a beginning for reaching those dreams and desires.

The purpose of this paper is to outline succinctly the basic requirements for providing good instructional sailing courses, the parameters of a comprehensive sailing program, the personnel requirements for a comprehensive program, and some ideas for the funding and general operation of the sailing program on an annual basis. Throughout the text there are resource-references for contacts in the event the reader needs further and more detailed information.

BASIC REQUIREMENTS

1. *Prime Mover.* We all know that good programs usually have good people to lead them. To embark on a sailing program requires that your department assign a staff member to the task of developing and administering the program who will be committed and who has the personal and professional qualities to be successful in whatever work is to be done. This person should either have or develop a personal interest in sailing, as this type of active personal involvement by the leadership of the program will surely show in the success of the program.

Unfortunately, few professional preparation programs include instructional sailing methodology in the curriculum; therefore, we must often look to retraining our staff or looking outside the physical education realm for personnel.

2. *Body of Water.* Institutions located near lakes, oceans, large rivers, and reservoirs have definite advantages not only in the development of comprehensive sailing programs but also in creating interest in sailing activity in the student body. Although it is true that a great deal of basic instruction for boat handling can be accomplished in a swimming pool, it is not recommended that sailing instruction be conducted without some exposure to and experience in open water.

3. *Instructional Boats.* It seems as if there are more classes of boats than there are words in the dictionary. If your department decides to purchase a fleet of boats, the following is advised: select a boat that is manufactured by a reputable firm; it should be well constructed, durable, easy to maintain, locally popular, and sufficiently complex that your instructional offerings are not limited to basic or beginning classes. Buying cheap equipment is usually the primary cause for failure in a new and experimental program. Also, most programs cannot afford to purchase separate types of boats for the beginning courses, the intermediate courses, and the advanced courses and then another fleet for the racing team. It is most advantageous to select a type of boat that can do almost everything. For these reasons, it is recommended that a boat similar to the Flying Junior be selected.[1] The FJ is thirteen feet long and five feet wide; weighs 225 pounds; is normally constructed in fiberglass (which is easily repaired and maintained); uses a mainsail, jib, and spinnaker (optional); carries two people but can easily be sailed alone or with three people; will plane when the wind is strong; and is an international class boat that has active fleets all over the United States. Also, the FJ is the most popular boat in the United States for intercollegiate sailing teams in two-person competition. This type of boat, built by a good manufacturer, will cost from $1,500 to $2,000.

The size of your fleet can, of course, vary according to the individual situation, but we have found at Santa Cruz that six boats for instruction is the optimum number. With less than six the class size is too restricted for economical efficiency, and with more than six the degree of effective instruction and supervision is lessened. With a fleet of six boats our classes are limited to eighteen

students—twelve sailing in the boats and six observing and rotating in. We have found that those observing and listening to the instruction learn more than the students who are actually in the boats; therefore, it is advantageous to have students rotating in and out.

Learning how to sail two-person dinghies like the Flying Junior properly and safely is the most practical way to develop sailing knowledge, as the concepts and skills are most easily transferred to other types of boats. However, for a truly comprehensive sailing program it is good to have boats of other types, such as single-handed dinghies and larger keelboats so that students can have the opportunity actually to experience and develop personal skills in these characteristically different types of boats.

For single-handed instruction, recreation, and competition, a boat like the Laser is recommended.[2] This boat is also thirteen feet long and weighs about 150 pounds, is unsinkable, is very simply equipped, and is extremely popular throughout the world. This boat is used almost exclusively for single-handed intercollegiate competition and is a very lively but physically demanding boat to sail. The cost is currently $950, and the boat is so durable that one should last for several years of institutional use if properly supervised.

Keelboats are a little more complicated. They require a harbor berthing or mooring facility, are much more expensive, and require more extensive maintenance and expertise. An institution that has the capability of owning larger keelboats is certainly fortunate in that it can offer a program that is truly well rounded. The boat most often used by colleges and universities in the United States is the Shields-30 sloop.[3] The reason for this is that a very generous man on the East Coast by the name of Cornelius Shields, Sr., who started the Shields class a few years ago, has donated many of these boats to various colleges. Presently, on the East Coast a Shields-30 costs $13,000 with sails. A great deal of good will has resulted from these fleets of Shields sloops, as the colleges that have them have made the boats available to other colleges from time to time. Intercollegiate competition in keelboats is, quite naturally, conducted in Shields-30 sloops. The boat is extremely well designed and has proved to be a fantastic boat for instruction, recreation, and racing.

4. *Safety Equipment.* Sailing is a potentially dangerous activity that requires that institutional programs follow sound guidelines for the prudent and safe conduct of classes and recreation. Lifejackets are part of the equipment every sailor has.[4] The student should become aware that it is wise to wear the proper safety equipment always—not just in class. Vest-type lifejackets are very comfortable to wear, they are warm, and the good ones last a long time if properly stored and cared for. To fulfill its responsibility, the institution must provide this type of equipment for every person using boats.

It is very important to have a small utility boat with an engine when classes are conducted anywhere but in the most restricted bodies of water. This boat acts as a teaching platform, personnel carrier, safety vessel, tow boat, race committee boat, and water taxi. The Boston Whaler and the Zodiac inflatable boats have proved to be very satisfactory for these purposes.[5,6]

5. *Miscellaneous Equipment and Facilities.* There are always various additional items necessary to conduct any program, and sailing is no different. Storage boxes for sails, lifejackets, and miscellaneous equipment are essential. For small dinghies it is highly advised to have dry-storage facilities, as the boats last at least twice as long as when they are kept constantly in the water. This requires launching facilities such as a ramp or hoist. The better collegiate programs have, in addition, shop space, classrooms, toilet and shower facilities, and slip or dock space.

6. *Insurance and Liability.* Most institutions carry basic liability insurance, which is a blanket policy for all aspects of operations on and off campus. Some of the new additions to physical education are potentially more dangerous than others, and in these cases it is wise to have students sign statements indicating that they understand the nature of the activity and the hazards involved. This, of course, is not a license for the instructor or institution to be negligent in any way.

All boats should be covered with hull insurance with a $100 deductible. This usually runs about $20 annually for a Flying Junior sailboat and $120 for a Shields-30 sloop.

7. *Maintenance Program.* Colleges generally have the reputation of not taking care of their equipment. Thus, the boats that they own soon lose their luster, fittings fall apart, participants lose their desire to keep things in good shape, and the program suffers immensely as a result. This type of behavior is largely due to poor planning and an unrealistic concept of the proper operation of a boating program. Student volunteers can contribute a great deal to the proper maintenance of equipment, which in itself can be very educational and rewarding, but there is a need for leadership to supervise the work and keep the volunteers coming. Cutting back on maintenance expenses is false economy—the equipment will have to be replaced all the sooner. Also, nothing will deteriorate the morale of the instructor more or frustrate the students more than having to spend half of the class jury-rigging broken equipment on the boats.

We have found at Santa Cruz that the best maintenance program is one that provides a portion of each instructor's time for maintenance duties. The instructors encourage students to assist; in this way a feeling of pride is established in taking care of equipment that is used, and the equipment is generally not abused. It is least profitable to have an outside person be responsible for fixing everything. As the fleet of boats grows and as the program expands to various classes of boats and includes one or more power boats, the need increases to have personnel with special talents in fiberglass repair, woodworking, mechanical and electrical skills, painting, and welding abilities. People with these talents are rare and well worth the salary it takes to keep them around.

PARAMETERS OF A COMPREHENSIVE PROGRAM

A department that can fulfill most of the basic requirements outlined above has the potential for conducting a very comprehensive sailing program. With the necessary boats and equipment used for instruction, the program is easily expanded to include recreational sailing in the evenings and on weekends, competitive racing teams, and even cruising.

1. *Sailing Instruction.* The following is a brief summary of the types of classes that may be offered:

a. Basic Dinghy Sailing—nomenclature, boat handling, rigging, tacks, jibes, sail trim, docking, capsize, rules-of-the-road, safety, and care of equipment. Two-hour classes meeting once or twice per week with 18-24 total hours of instruction.

b. Intermediate Dinghy Sailing—an advanced beginning course that expands on the concepts covered in the basic sailing experience and includes an introduction to racing techniques and more concern with the theory of sailing.

c. Beginning Keelboat Sailing—this course should be designed as an introduction to keelboat sailing and should require as a prerequisite some basic sailing knowledge and skill, preferably having taken the basic dinghy sailing class. The special skills of handling a larger and heavier boat are quite unique. Although the basic theory and concepts are similar, keelboats and dinghies are as different as foil and saber in fencing, downhill and slalom in skiing, and internal lineman and running back in football.

d. Intermediate Keelboat Sailing—a course designed for those students who want to further the development of their keelboat sailing. This course can get into racing techniques and special cruising abilities, such as setting courses, using anchors, picking up moorings, and using a variety of sails such as spinnakers.

e. Competitive Sailing—a course that can be taught in a combination of boats and concentrates strictly on specific aspects of racing such as starting, mark rounding, and racing rules.

f. Navigation—with the interest generated by the various sailing classes, there will be those students who would like to become accomplished in sailing-related skills, such as navigation, including position-fixing with celestial bodies and using electronic devices. Course offerings in these related areas add a great deal of professionalism to the program, and the students who follow through with the total program can certainly achieve a feeling of accomplishment and satisfaction with what they have learned.

2. *Recreational Sailing.* When boats and equipment are not being used for classes they should be available for use by those people who qualify on a recreational basis. We have found that this is best accomplished through a sports club program or through the supervision of the recreation department. It is not practical to develop a recreational program without careful guidelines and close supervision. Also, it is unrealistic and unfair to offer sailing instruction and not have an outlet for people to practice or use what they have learned.

3. *Competitive Teams.* There are over 300 college sailing teams in North America that compete on a regular basis. College sailing is regulated by the Intercollegiate Yacht Racing Association of North America, which comprises eight geographical districts. New college teams interested in becoming involved in intercollegiate competition need only write the ICYRA of NA executive vice president, who can direct the inquiry to the nearest district association.[7] Competition is conducted at the local or district level and interdistrict, intersectional, and national levels. The ICYRA of NA national championships are normally held annually in the second week of June. The competition is open to both men and women, and two-year community colleges compete right along with the major four-year universities. The strong areas are in the New England states, the Midwest, and the Pacific Coast.

Characteristically, there are far more colleges supporting intercollegiate sailing teams than there are colleges supporting instructional sailing programs. Many colleges have large fleets of sailing dinghies reserved for team use, although the average student has no opportunity to become involved.

In a comprehensive program it is logical for the sailing team to use the instructional boats for team practice and then possibly purchase one or two racing boats that would be used for competition only. Here again it is important to purchase instructional boats that are capable of serving a wide variety of interests.

Intercollegiate competition is conducted throughout the school year in several types of boats. Regattas are hosted by colleges that have the necessary equipment and the expertise to manage and supervise the competition. Most teams trailer or car-top their boats to the event. On occasion a college will provide the boats and charge a use fee for every entrant.

4. *Cruising.* Many students today have a deep desire to travel to faraway places, and getting there by sailboat is often a dream come true, an adventure. Colleges that have a basic sailing program but do not have the larger boats to take day trips, over-nighters, weekend outings, or longer excursions must use their harbor contacts and friends to get on a boat trip.

There is an entire body of knowledge involved in a sailboat cruise. Most of the general boating public are novices who purchase a small boat with the intention of cruising. Their background in boating is extremely limited, and they usually learn as they go, which is often expensive and sometimes a tragedy. Therefore, if it is at all possible, a college sailing program should include instruction in cruising techniques and promote sailing trips as a firsthand learning experience.

Many colleges have been fortunate in receiving gifts of large ocean-going yachts. Those colleges that have the ability to support the operation of a larger boat can certainly offer a worthy outlet for those interested in ocean sailing. At the University of California at Santa Cruz (UCSC), we have been given larger boats and have thus completed two trans-Pacific crossings to the Hawaiian Islands as part of summer cruises, and we have traveled to Mexico twice during spring breaks. The number of weekend and day trips that have been completed are countless. Because this boat has since been sold (proceeds will help fund a sailing center), the UCSC Sailing Club is promoting a spring cruise among several of the local yachtsmen. So far there are five boats lined up to go, and each one will be taking several of the club members.

PERSONNEL

Programs normally begin very small and progressively develop depending on particular successes and student interest. As stated previously, an industrious prime mover is essential to initiate, promote, and develop a meaningful sailing program. As the program grows, other assistants can be generated with knowledgeable students who could be hired on a part-time basis.

Boat maintenance, as discussed, is so important that it is essential to allow time and personnel for it. Under proper direction, work-study students can be incorporated into completing many maintenance jobs—and at a great savings to the budget. Also, sports club and sailing team members can often be recruited to assist with maintenance of boats and equipment on a volunteer basis.

For weekend recreation it is important to have proper supervision with the checking in and out of boats. Therefore, a person of responsibility and knowledge is essential. At UCSC we have worked with the Federal Probation Office and have employed volunteer workers who must give their weekends to nonprofit agencies as an alternate service to the military.

As the sailing program grows in comprehensiveness there understandably comes a time when full-time staffing is necessary. The assistant you choose must have impressive credentials. Of course, it would be nice to find someone with an MS in physical education from Springfield, but he would rank below someone who has earned a BA and acquired ten years of sailing experience, won the Sears Cup Junior Championship at 16, constructed a wood and fiber-

glass boat of original design, worked in a sail loft during the summer, taught sailing in a yacht club junior development program, and crewed on an offshore tuna boat and who practices yoga and carves model airplanes as a hobby. Such a person could plug a lot of holes and keep the program afloat.

FUNDING

Unless your department has a lot of money or it decides to alter the priorities for budgeting, the sailing program will have to generate a great deal of income to offset the expenses. Some ideas for developing income that have proved successful at UCSC follow:

1. *Fees for Classes.* $15 for dinghy and $20 for keelboat sailing are charged each student.
2. *Expanding Use.* The boats are scheduled for maximum usage by encouraging local secondary school, community college, and recreation department use of the facilities as available. An appropriate contract is developed and an expense fee is charged.
3. *Weekend Recreation.* An agreement is established with the UCSC Sailing Club for weekend use of the boats and an appropriate annual fee is charged.
4. *Regatta Fees.* A nominal use fee is charged visiting colleges when the boats are supplied for competitive events.
5. *Contributions.* Boats, equipment, and other items of value are solicited for donations and are sold when appropriate to fund various needs.
6. *Departmental Funding.* The department budgets funds to offset deficits in the income.

The primary concept is to run the program at maximum usage and charge a nominal fee for every user so that no one has to pay for another person's fun.

A CASE STUDY

UCSC hires a person to initiate a small sailing program, money is budgeted to purchase four Flying Junior sailboats, and a highly beat-up whaler is scrounged from marine studies and with some artistic repairs an incredibly good utility boat is put into service. With a timely gift of two Shields-30 sloops and a maintenance loan of two others, the keelboat fleet is complete. Another gift, a 43-foot sloop, rounds out the cruising outlet. Through justified requests, a full-time staff assistant is hired and more classes are offered. With satisfactory income, the old FJs are sold and six new boats are purchased. The Sailing Club buys two additional FJs of its own for racing and now a fleet of eight identical dinghies is available. Local high schools and the community college are offered the opportunity to use the facilities and community interest and support grows. Fresno State College, located 150 miles inland from Santa Cruz, conducts elementary sailing classes in their college pool using loaned boats and contracts with UCSC for the use of its facilities for weekend outings—giving their students the necessary ocean experience. Other nearby colleges do the same thing. We end up with a regional sailing center shared and supported by many and the costs are reasonably inexpensive for everyone.

Check your area and see if another campus near you has facilities you can use or help develop. If not, maybe you can develop a comprehensive program of your own. Don't forget to include your neighbors!

REFERENCES

1. Flying Junior: Sailnetics, 768 Atlantic Avenue, Alameda, California 94501, phone (415) 523-4800; Vanguard, 1251 E. Wisconsin Avenue, Pewaukee, Wisconsin 53072, phone (414) 691-3320.

2. Laser: Performance Sailcraft, 33 Duff Place, San Rafael, California 94901, phone (415) 454-7600.

3. Shields-30: Cape Cod Shipbuilding, Wareham, Massachusetts 02571, phone (617) 295-3550.

4. Lifejackets: Stearns Manufacturing, St. Cloud, Minnesota 56301, phone (612) 252-1642.

5. Boston Whaler: Boston Whaler, 1149 Hingham Street, Rockland, Massachusetts 02370, phone (617) 871-1400.

6. Zodiac: Zodiac of North America, 11 Lee Street, Annapolis, Maryland 21401, phone (301) 268-2009.

7. ICYRA of NA Executive Vice President: J. Gordan Bentley, 514 Second Street, Liverpool, New York 13088, phone (315) 457-4564.

Other resource persons: Carl Reinhart, Sailing Coach, Crawford Hall, University of California at Irvine, Irvine, California 92664, phone (714) 833-5846; Gary Jobsen, Sailing Coach, Kings Point Merchant Marine Academy, Kings Point, New York, phone (516) 466-8288; Dick Murray, Sailing Supervisor, Fieldhouse, UCSC, Santa Cruz, California 95064, phone (408) 429-2531.

A DYNAMIC PHYSICAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

FRED DREWS
North Carolina State University

The Department of Physical Education and Intramural Athletics at North Carolina State University has as its mission the charge to develop through knowledge acquisition and total body activity, primarily of the lifetime sports type, the physically, mentally, and socially effective individual and to provide a comprehensive intramural athletics program for the student body.

To achieve mission accomplishment, the university requires physical education of the undergraduate student body. In addition, the department provides a well-organized and varied intramural activities program. We do not offer a major curriculum in physical education. Therefore, it is evident that our entire interest rests in the required/elective physical education program and the intramural program.

The overwhelming majority of students complete their requirement in four semesters. In that time frame they have passed a survival swimming test, a semester-long course in health and physical fitness, and six physical education activity courses. At the minimum exposure level, wherein the student may complete requirements in two semesters, the student has passed a survival swimming test, the freshman course in health and physical fitness, and two vigorous lifetime sports proficiency examinations at the grade level of B+ or 85. Nearly all of our activity classes are of eight weeks' duration. Individual permanent records of all student work in physical education are maintained in the central office.

To enhance further the student's opportunity for election of activities, our faculty is organized to conduct an internal registration for classes twice a semester. Priority of choice is to upper classmen and on a first-come, first-served basis. The schedule of courses taught each eight weeks is based on facilities available, faculty teaching capabilities, season, and student interests as determined by an annual curriculum preference survey.

The department currently teaches 36 courses. They are categorized as prescribed courses, aquatics, combatives, developmental activities, individual sports, and team sports. In 1973-74 we taught 5,527 different students. This teaching load represented 842 sections of physical education. We have just completed the first semester of 1974-75 in which we taught 6,485 students in 517 sections of physical education. The average size of a section in the prescribed freshman course was 27; in other classes the enrollment varies between 12 and 36 depending on the nature of the activity. The current university full-time enrollment is 13,931—of which 11,775 are undergraduates. All physical education courses carry letter grades and quality points that are computed in the grade point average.

The intramural program at NCSU is an integral part of the physical education department. It is staffed by three faculty members each of whom is coassigned to teach several sections of physical education in addition to his intramural duties. The 1973-74 academic year had 4,350 different students participate in the program, for a gross participation figure of 10,749. In the past four years our sports clubs program, under the direction of our intramural office, has grown to 13 clubs with several more on the way. Our intramural program currently has 32 different activities. The student intramural board is an advisory body to the intramural director. Another interesting point is that of our 1,846 faculty members, we currently have 396 members of the university faculty using our facilities for recreation and participation in the faculty intramural program.

The facilities for physical education instruction, intramural sports, and physical recreation are situated in a complex entirely separate in control and location from the facilities for intercollegiate athletics. Overall, the physical education complex consists of three interconnected buildings with 216,036 square feet and a gross cubic footage of 4,371,075 and with one building holding 25 offices, 7 classrooms, 10 handball courts, and 6 squash courts and with another building holding a large gymnasium in which are 8 basketball courts that we set up as multiple-use teaching stations for basketball, volleyball, badminton, physical fitness, and gymnastics. Also contained in the building are locker room areas for men (8,919) and women (2,305) and separate teaching stations for fencing, dance, and combatives and a golf-cage room and 2 weight-training rooms. The third building is a fine natatorium of 25 yards x 25 meters with ample deck space for teaching, as well as an excellent spectator area. Our outdoor facilities consist of 26 tennis courts, an all-weather track, a golf-putting area, and 12 acres of turf used for touch football, soccer, lacrosse, archery, golf, and jogging.

Funding for operations of the department, exclusive of salaries, is from student fees, which are in trust funds and assigned with legal responsibility to the department head. Currently, the general physical education fee is $17 and the intramural sports fee is $3. These fees are charged to all students annually. Additional support is given the department by the state of North Carolina for the purchase of equipment and supplies for the instructional program. The current operating budget, exclusive of salaries and utilities, is $238,100.

The department is presently staffed by 29 faculty members and 10 support personnel. All faculty members are full-time employees of the department. A point of interest is that 8 of our faculty members have accepted additional duties, beyond their full-time assignment in our department, as coaches under separate contract with the Department of Athletics. This arrangement has been effective for both departments. In all instances, the Department of Physical Education hires and evaluates its teachers completely free of influence from the Department of Athletics.

The basic organization for the department is line and staff. The department head is held responsible for all actions. He receives formal administrative advice from the two most senior faculty members. Other key administrative positions reside in three men among whom are delegated responsibility for scheduling classes and faculty, monitoring and recommending actions for facility maintenance and improvements, purchasing equipment and supplies, directing proficiency testing, directing physical fitness testing, and coordinating instruction of the prescribed freshman course in health and physical fitness. These men are the key personnel for effective day-to-day operations of the department.

The faculty-at-large are assigned a variety of committee assignments. In all, there are 34 activity committees plus a senior faculty review committee and committees for curriculum, facilities, research, and registration. All committees report at least annually to the faculty-at-large. Through committee assignments, junior faculty members are provided a variety of opportunities to demonstrate their knowledge, creativity, and other abilities. The budgeting process actively solicits from the committees a projection of needs after which final allocations are determined by the department head in consonance with the departmental purchasing officer. The planning, programming, and budgeting sequence involves all committee chairmen and administrative personnel and has consistently demonstrated sound fiscal management.

The formal communications system for the department is mainly conducted through weekly faculty meetings. These meetings are structured as business meetings with the political process of voting utilized sparingly and only in conjunction with broad overriding policy decisions and curriculum matters. Other official communications involving coordinations are between the senior administrative personnel and appropriate faculty members and are conducted on a man-to-man and eye-to-eye basis. It is a rare event when written memoranda are used to communicate.

The annual evaluation of faculty for retention, renewal, promotion, and salary is managed by the department head, who receives advice from a senior faculty review committee of four persons. The review process consists of numerous observations and a review committee discussion of each faculty member's work, a submission by each faculty member of a statement of his year's work, a student evaluation, and finally a written evaluation rendered to the department head by each review committee member. The final step is a compilation and rank ordering of the evaluations, which are both narrative and quantitative. The department head has the final responsibility for all personnel actions.

The criteria used in evaluating faculty members are defined, weighted, and categorized. Under teaching effectiveness, the faculty members are rated on organizing ability, punctuality, professional attitude, thoroughness, performance ability, appearance, enthusiasm, fairness, availability, and care of supplies and equipment. Other criteria include records management, completing de-

partmental assignments, demonstration of leadership qualities, availability for departmental committee work, and constructive participation in departmental committees or projects. Also rated are the individual's efforts to improve through attendance at professional meetings, clinics, and graduate schools. Each of the criteria mentioned has a working definition and each is weighted as either indispensable, extremely important, important, or desirable. The scoring system applied is on a one-to-five-point scale and defined as poor, below average, average, above average, and superior.

Each member of the senior faculty review committee, in submitting his evaluations to the department head, concurrently submits an order-of-merit or rank-order faculty list. This listing is combined with the department head's evaluation and forms the quantitative basis for personnel decisions. A final stratification of faculty members is determined and is categorized as outstanding, superior, excellent, effective, marginal, or inadequate.

This presentation began with a statement of mission. The appropriate question in consonance with the principle of accountability is, How well is the mission accomplished? To address this question several measures are employed.

Each course has a definite written course of study including a prescribed procedure for evaluation of student performances. From year to year the results of skills and knowledge tests are reviewed and revised as required. Student evaluations of courses are used minimally. Their greatest value is to provide information to the individual teacher in the form of direct feedback. The department's faculty review board inspects them mainly to detect any negative trends, and if found, the situation is quietly pursued to establish a more accurate estimate of the situation. Additional feedback is gained through student-attitude surveys, personal interviews with students, and grade analyses. Extensive data are collected in physical fitness measures of freshmen at entrance to the university and at the end of their semester's work in the health and physical fitness course. This data is systematically reviewed and compared with earlier years. These data studies are often the basis for changes in techniques of instruction and in course content.

I have described what any informed listener would recognize as a line-and-staff organization that requires leadership and adherence to high professional standards in order to insure success. Such an organization requires, on the part of its membership, a significant desire for the overall mission of the department to be successfully achieved. With a setting for both leadership and followership in combination with opportunities provided for talents to surface, the NCSU program is thriving.

We recognize that our manner of organization is unique in modern educational practice. With a minimum of formal political action in a university where a great deal of political action is encouraged it may be an appropriate question to ask, What special considerations undergird this organization? I shall partially answer this question.

First, we assign each person in a leadership role definite, clear-cut responsibilities. Second, we give each leader definite, clear-cut authority to carry out the responsibilities assigned to him. Third, we establish clear lines of authority, paying particular attention to the principle that a person should be subject to direction from only one source in carrying out his assigned responsibility.

A main concern is for humanizing the organization as an open system: that is, the organization is in constant interaction with the environment, thereby receiving a stream of inputs from the various publics and officials from both in-

side and outside of the organization's boundaries. Formal and informal feedback is constantly solicited from the department's faculty, staff, students in classes, students in intramurals, and faculty users of the physical education facilities, thereby providing simple and effective communications linkups.

Finally, we recognize that at least three general attributes can be expected to characterize any good organization: balance, stability, and flexibility. An organization in balance is one whose components have been allowed to develop fully but only to the point of contributing their utmost to the organization's objectives. Stability in an organization indicates that it can develop and sustain itself without overdependence on individual key or specialized personnel. Considerable effort is made in the Department of Physical Education at NCSU to insure that at all levels of personnel persons are prepared to step up or stand in as the situation requires.

Many factors contribute to flexibility, the quality that permits changing workloads to be handled quickly and economically. The key point in maintaining flexibility is recognition of the need for redefinition of tasks and assignments. Identified tasks of an unusual magnitude and of a long-term nature may require a change in the tailoring of department organization. If the task is significant but of a short-term nature our usual manner of attacking the situation is to appoint selected personnel to prepare an appropriate action for consideration.

In conclusion, the Department of Physical Education at North Carolina State University is traditional in its line-and-staff organization and effective in its results in terms of its curriculum, students' learning, faculty morale, and business management.

THE COMMUNITY/JUNIOR COLLEGE AND NCPEAM

GEORGE F. CARTER
Triton College

I would like to motivate you to consider the community college physical educator as a professional working in the community college, an integral part of the system of higher education.

Many of you represent the best minds in education, and you are among the most learned people in the world. The reputation of the NCPEAM was considered when Dr. Fordham first approached me about speaking at this prestigious convention. I was both flattered and apprehensive. Most of us who work in a community college are not accustomed to having this opportunity, and many of us are awed by the changes taking place in higher education. One obvious change is the recent emergence of the community college on a national basis. These two-year schools are becoming a viable entity within the spectrum of higher education; although their rapid growth will level off, their usefulness may increase.

In years past, the community college has not always enjoyed a pleasant reputation. Many educators have considered the community college as a dumping ground or as a place to send educational rejects. You may harbor such a concept of the two-year college. Much of the way you believe is due to your personal experience or the manner in which you have been taught.

There were only ten or eleven junior colleges in Illinois when I accepted a job at Triton College in 1967. Public Law 1710—establishing junior college districts—was enacted by the Illinois General Assembly in 1964, and most of the new junior colleges in our state had their beginning. Since there were no facilities, many of these colleges began their operation in high schools, factories, and storefronts.

It has been my experience that most people who are a product of the college system of the 50s and 60s think negatively when discussing community colleges. The meager beginning of the community college in our state reinforced many of these old beliefs, thus creating a real image problem. Historically speaking, a college education has been limited to the elite (both academically and financially) and oriented toward the four-year degree. Thus, these new two-year schools have had to overcome many obstacles in establishing their niche within the higher education community.

As our society moves into the late 70s and beyond, many changes are going to take place. An area that may change dramatically is higher education. This changing has already begun to some extent, witness the battle for students, dropping enrollments, challenges to tenure, unionism, collective bargaining, and so forth. Community junior colleges will play an important role in the changing educational concept.

Junior colleges had their beginning in 1901 with Joliet Junior College in Joliet, Illinois. This college and most of the other early junior colleges offered basically the first two years of the four-year program. For the most part, they were intended for those financially unable to go away to college and for people not acceptable to the four-year college. Eventually, these two-year colleges evolved into the comprehensive junior college and began serving many publics, especially in technical and vocational education. Next, the comprehensive junior college became the comprehensive community college, adding adult education and many community services to their offerings. This brief historical review brings us to today.

Did you know that community junior college enrollment hit 3.5 million in fall 1974?

The concept of community college education in Illinois is to allow all citizens above high-school age the opportunity and access to higher education, whether in transfer programs or job skills training. There are 47 community colleges in Illinois and others are planned. Many of these new colleges have developed in the urban areas or in dense population centers. Community colleges have become a vehicle to provide an opportunity for education to the masses.

Over the last seventy years, citizens as well as educators have experienced an environment where the educational system has been expanding. Attempts have been made to meet the needs of society through the creation of many new schools and educational techniques. Some of these have been successful, others have fallen by the wayside. Our profession has been studied, researched, talked about, and changed so often that the American public is confused.

Declining public approval of higher education began five to six years ago when discipline hit an all-time low, students took control, and riots became the order of the day. Public opinion has deteriorated further in recent months due to the economy and job market. The number of students entering elementary schools is noticeably less, some college enrollments are down, some colleges are closing, foundation funding is down, and budgets are tighter than ever before.

However, there are many ways to view our situation. It appears that this era is a time of opportunity. Much as we might not like to admit it, supply and demand operate in education as well as in other sectors of American life. It will be a difficult few years as the transition from a growth climate in higher education adjusts to a climate that requires fewer educators. Many of the changes in higher education may seem unfair to you, especially when you have invested a lifetime in preparation. But, at the community college, change keeps us dynamic. The use of part-time faculty, utilization of paraprofessional personnel instead of faculty wherever possible, and better utilization of facilities and full-time personnel are commonplace to us.

Community colleges may now serve as a threat to many of you. They were not very awesome in the 60s when college enrollments were peaking and money was plentiful. Some persons in higher education would blame the community college for the problems besetting higher education. For those of you who may feel that way, let me remind you that most of the persons attending the community college would not attend the four-year school. The typical, or average, community college student at Triton College (enrollment almost 20,000) (1) is a part-timer (he carries less than 12 credits); (2) is a commuter (no dorms are available); (3) is 27 years old; (4) often comes from a culturally, socially, or financially deprived background; and (5) spreads his education over several years. Many community college students are married with families; work either full- or part-time; would not qualify for admission to four-year schools; are reverse transfers from four-year schools; and are not interested in a four-year degree but in immediate job training.

Many of the problems facing an educator at the four-year school are the same as the ones facing the educator at the two-year school. Probably the biggest concern for all of us is whether or not the American public will continue to be willing to invest millions of dollars in public higher education. In assessing the job market and the quality of the work performed by our graduates, serious concern does exist. Those of us who work in the community college believe the salvation for higher education is our ability to reach the masses through our varied educational opportunities. In the education marketplace, all segments of the education system are evaluated by the public, including grade school, high school, and college. We are all in this together.

At Triton College, the Department of Physical Education and Health Education is one of nine within the School of University Transfer Studies. Career Education has fourteen departments at our school and over 50 percent of the enrollment. Our department offers both a majors program and a basic instruction program. The majors program is limited with regard to lecture courses inasmuch as not many would transfer. You see, for any of our courses to be transferred as credit courses, they must articulate with one of the state senior colleges within Illinois. Therefore, most of the courses in the majors program are taught at the senior colleges, which is as it should be.

Courses offered in our majors program usually have one hour of lecture and two hours of lab or activity. Naturally, it is our belief that our program serves the need of our students, but our faculty believe they should be able to teach some classroom courses. This is impossible because of Illinois law, which prohibits upper-division courses from being taught in the two-year college. In the future, many four-year colleges may start to offer courses at the two-year site utilizing their own staff and qualified community college instructors. If students do not come to us for our service, the service must be taken to the student.

Our basic instruction program at Triton College serves about 1,100 students per semester. This figure does not include health education, recreation, and physical education offered through adult education. Since our student body is so diversified and we do not have permanent on-campus athletic facilities, this number has significance. Many of our courses are taught at nearby community centers, park districts, YMCAs, other colleges, and wherever space can be borrowed or rented.

A full program of activities is offered and the courses are taught by our full-time staff or a part-timer with expertise in a particular area. The use of part-time instructors is on the increase and has more drawbacks than advantages, but it does allow our program to expand.

In December 1971, the Illinois Board of Higher Education eliminated involuntary physical education as a requirement for graduation at all state colleges and universities. At that time, it was feared that the decision would eliminate some of our staff, especially since we did not have permanent on-campus facilities for our activities. Initially our enrollments dropped, but through hard work on the part of our department and our administration, many credit hours have been recovered. No instructor lost his job because of the loss of the requirement.

The future appears brighter for us. Next year, Triton anticipates the installation of outdoor play areas. Already there are twelve modern buildings to serve our students. The first phase of construction for athletics and physical education will include an Astroturf play field, an allweather track, a baseball diamond, and tennis courts. As money becomes available, the stadium and spectator seats will be provided. Indoor facilities are currently in the planning stages. Since the Capital Development Board (the approval agency for building in Illinois) will not approve construction funds for physical education facilities, the college district must fund all physical education and athletic facilities from district tax dollars.

Plans are now under way to construct a community career center on the campus. This building will house a child-care center, a senior citizen center, many health career programs, adult and continuing education centers, police science, fire science, recreation leadership, and locally funded physical education facilities. This project will go before the Capital Development Board some time this year. This is a new concept in facility planning and should prove to be a bonanza for our physical education enrollment inasmuch as students from a variety of subject areas will be exposed to our activities.

What about the community college and NCPEAM? By now you have some idea of the community college. What does the NCPEAM offer to the community college physical educator? There are a great many demands placed on all of us, yet, as an individual and a professional, we all make some commitments. As I reviewed my memberships, I realized that some adjustments would need to be made in the coming years. Time, money, and commitment to the many organizations cannot continue.

How do you decide which organization you will join? There are as many reasons for joining as there are people. One of the general rules is that you join because of a friendship or your friend's recommendation. If a person joins through friendship, the experience will usually be a good one as immediate contacts can be established and enable the newcomer to feel right at home. Some may join out of professional commitment; others, to make personal contacts or for job advancement. Certain individuals may join to present a paper or seek a scholarship or grant. Why should the community college physical educator join?

A principle that many of us use when considering an organizational membership is to find out what the organization can do for us and what we can do for the organization. When you stop to analyze the community college physical educator, he usually does not relate to the NCPEAM and for some good reasons.

The community college faculty are not pushed to publish or perish, they are not research oriented, they are not necessarily inclined to pursue a doctorate, and they work with students who are quite different from typical four-year students. There are some other differences that influence the two-year-school faculty member. Normal teaching loads are geared to 14-20 contact hours per week and usually include some other assignment. It would seem fair to say that the work load of the community college teacher is a cross between that of the high school teacher and that of the teacher at the four-year school (at least in terms of teaching load).

Another area of important diversity is that of the faculty selection and retention. Many two-year colleges employ faculty who can instruct in general rather than specific disciplines or who are willing to take on additional duties, such as coaching. They must also prefer to teach in the basic instruction program, since our majors programs are limited. A number of the two-year colleges do not recruit faculty beyond their local districts; many of the new faculty at these colleges come from nearby high schools.

It usually has been considered a promotion to move up to a higher school level and a demotion to move down. This trend over the years has influenced many educators to believe that the community college teacher is inferior to his four-year counterpart. Some of these beliefs are changing, many due to the overabundance of teachers and the state of the economy. Teaching at the community college is gaining in prestige, promoting increased interest in working at this level.

The relationship between the NCPEAM and the community college may never end in a marriage. The nature of the programs, the nature of the institutional commitments, the nature of the person who works at the community college, and other considerations, such as budget, might never allow for wide participation by community college people in the NCPEAM. If and when the time arrives that a community college person feels the need for this organization, I'm certain that he would feel welcome; my personal relationship, which began in 1967, has always been good.

All of us have learned a long time ago that we can manufacture needs; we do this through promotion. In a manner of speaking, the NCPEAM has initiated the elementary steps to solicit community junior college members. This has been done through the attempt to establish some junior college leadership and through this session here today.

There are many philosophical considerations that merit discussion by NCPEAM leaders when they consider recruiting two-year faculty as potential members of this organization. Since persons working in two-year colleges have a different orientation and need toward organizations, it is questionable whether great numbers will join. If the NCPEAM leadership is committed to reaching out to the community/junior college for membership, these suggestions might prove helpful:

1. Begin your membership drive with the community college members within the organization. Request their input and actively involve them with the work.
2. Consider different types of memberships. Each category would require a separate dues and provide different services.

3. Consider dividing the U'S into geographical districts. Find a strong community college leader within each district and utilize him.
4. Devise a technique to insure that community college people recognize community college leadership exists in the NCPEAM. If necessary, establish a fund to pay expenses for an individual to appear on the national convention program.
5. Establish incentives for membership. Develop appropriate remunerative and prestige awards for district leaders.
6. Involve every new member in some project immediately. Make certain that the new member has more than a dues-paying commitment.
7. Work on the image of the NCPEAM. Make it relevant to the community college person.
8. Develop a reward system for those serving on committees, attending conventions, making speeches, and helping to promote and build the NCPEAM.
9. Develop a membership certificate that is suitable for framing and mounting on the office wall. Issue these certificates and update the year on them for all members.
10. Do not expect immediate success.

Many of these suggestions have probably been considered at other times. The odds are against the NCPEAM increasing community college membership. As you may be aware, though, there is not one agency that provides for the community college physical educator. There are over 600 of these two-year colleges, which do not have a national organization or national leadership opportunities.

Economy, budget, energy, leadership, and timing are important ingredients to change. There appears to be a void on the national level for leadership at the community/junior college level. There are many obstacles to be overcome but the NCPEAM might well be the organization to adopt the community college physical educator. It will take time, compromise, and understanding, but it could prove worthwhile for all concerned.

HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND RECREATION IN THE "NOW" COLLEGE

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INTRODUCTION

The unprecedented growth of community colleges in the United States during the last decade—a 300 percent increase in enrollments and a doubling of the number of institutions—attests to the popularity of these remarkable institutions of higher learning. Many advocates of the community college envision it as "one of the few unique accomplishments of American Education in the 20th Century."[1] Since the last decade, community colleges have been established for the first time in most major cities. Within a few years, more than 1,000 publicly supported community colleges will make education beyond high school available to youth, adults, and senior citizens in every state. Marland points out that

"the community-junior college movement is perhaps the most significant and certainly the liveliest phenomenon in American education."[2] He further suggests that by 1975 the enrollment at two-year colleges will rise from 2.5 million to 3.3 million students.[3] Willingham, in his state-by-state analyses of the need for additional educational institutions, proclaims that if the number of new community colleges continues to amass at its present rate, universal higher education through the fourteenth year for 90 percent of the population of this country will become a reality by 1980.[4] If this becomes a truism, think of the implications that this tremendous growth will have for the various disciplines, including our own.

In recent years, the Carnegie Commission recommended that no tuition be charged for the first two years of a college education at a public institution.[5] The continuing pressure to expand the accessibility of higher education is the product of many forces. Low cost institutions appeal to students who could not otherwise afford college or to those who are undecided about their future careers. The access of most community colleges to both college-age and adult enrollees creates a unique institutional appeal. Local employers seeking trained workers view the community college as an economic asset, and civic leaders look to it for cultural enrichment.

PHILOSOPHY AND OBJECTIVES OF THE COMMUNITY/JUNIOR COLLEGE

Democracy is dependent upon an educational system that permits the development of an informed and literate citizenry. The community college is dedicated to the democratic way of life. Because it has faith in the integrity and worth of each individual both as a human right and as a guarantee of a just, stable, and dynamic social order, its philosophy is to provide equal opportunity for the development of each individual's capabilities. Opportunity in higher education for all people is essential to this philosophy.

As an outgrowth of the aforementioned philosophy, the six objectives that follow are generally the concern of the community college.

1. *General Education* provides an opportunity for the education of each individual so that he may achieve a broad understanding of the social and physical forces affecting his life and become an effective member of his family, community, and world society.

2. *College Transfer Education* provides carefully planned programs of academic courses that are acceptable to colleges and universities and, when successfully completed, prepare the student for upper-division courses leading to various academic and professional degrees.

3. *Occupational Education* provides educational opportunities that are occupationally oriented and designed to prepare an individual for employment upon completion of a program of study, including opportunities relative to meeting the effects of technological changes or automation.

4. *Developmental Studies* provide programs for those individuals who have been identified as needing remedial courses and allow students to achieve at their own rates with some assurance of academic success and self-actualization.

5. *Guidance* provides each student with the necessary information, counseling, and direction to assist him in developing and progressing toward his goal.

6. *Community Services* provide facilities and leadership for education and opportunities for participation in a variety of activities so that the college may be a living social force and a cultural center of the community.

STUDENT POPULATION TO BE SERVED

Higher education has just about reached the saturation point for the bright youth from the upper socioeconomic levels, since 80 to 90 percent of this group are now in college. The newest college student is going to come from the second and third quartiles in ability and the lower socioeconomic strata of our society. The backgrounds and characteristics that shape the interests, career goals, and values of community/junior college students are diverse, and there is emphasis on the disadvantaged, the minority, and the home-based student. These characteristics can serve as important background information upon which faculty and administrators can build their strategies for helping students learn. If we think of these factors as inputs to the planning process, trends in student characteristics will be helpful to those concerned with predicting future needs.

ASSESSMENT OF GOALS

Goal achievements often depend upon the care with which subsystem objectives are specified. Subsystem or intermediate objectives can be used by faculty members to guide students as they progress through a given subject matter toward terminal performance objectives. The goals toward which performance objectives are pointed represent the longer-range mission of an instructional program and provide an integrative thread for the learning program as a whole.

Presently, there appears to be a concerted effort to focus attention on performance assessment as the major criterion for determining the effectiveness of a school. For the purpose of amplification, the three comments that follow appear to be appropriate. First, restating objectives in terms of output, or changes in the learner's performance, offers the advantage of relating inputs and instructional processes to results, with close attention to the interaction between these three classes of variables. Second, broader educational goals stated in terms of the behavior that students should realize upon completion of a program of study need to be broken down into more specific short-term or interim output objectives that collectively lead to improved student performance. Third, for certain types of learning experiences the learning process itself defines the objective being served. In some instances, general goals are all that can be stated, and subobjectives can be clarified through experience with individual learners.

By converting the broad educational goals of community/junior colleges into more specific output and process objectives, college administrators and faculty should be able to identify a minimum set of skills, knowledge, and attitudes to be achieved by a majority of the students enrolled in a particular course.

METHODS OF FULFILLING THE GOALS

1. *Variety in Curriculum* is essential. The courses and programs offered should be dependent on the needs and interests of the people and institutions, not on tradition and so-called normal college-level programs.

2. *Personal Assistance to Students* is viewed by many educators as one of the most important entities of the community college structure. It appears that we need to divorce ourselves from the professional counseling syndrome and begin to develop by a substantial reallocation of educational resources the coun-

seling potential inherent in involvement of students, faculty, and laymen from the community, including business and the professions.

3. *Grading Systems* that eliminate failure in the traditional sense are being experimented with by several community colleges. Supporters of nonpunitive grading systems and procedures believe that it is important to know what a student has mastered—what skills he can perform, problems he can solve, and information he can apply—but that it is not necessary or advisable to record failures in addition to successes.

4. *Concepts of Time* limiting education to the completion of a certain amount of courses that yield a certain number of credit hours in a few years are being questioned. Education as a lifelong activity appears to be gaining acceptance philosophically and practically. Educational closure is no longer a reasonable concept.

5. *New Locations and New Instructors* are needed because many students function more effectively in other environments than the campus. Off-campus centers in neighborhoods and industrial locations are examples. Communities can be used as laboratories. Educational opportunities can be taken to people where they live and work, using mobile facilities if necessary.

6. *Methods and Media* that allow different instructional approaches must be utilized. Because of financial and other constraints, the feasibility of doing something different is getting more emphasis now.

7. *Improved Teaching* is essential in any institution of higher learning. The cluster concept shows some promise but does have many interpretations. It is essentially a way of closely relating faculty and students. This arrangement is intended to lead to a greater acceptance of responsibility for student learning by all parties.

NEED FOR DIVERSITY IN FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATORS

Both the administrator and the teacher are managers of learning. Recognizing common responsibilities and a large community of interest helps close the gap that too often exists today between faculty and administration. It is the span of responsibility rather than the substance of the task that differentiates the roles of administrator and faculty member. In the community college, the teacher faces the challenging assignment of improving the learning process in an institution with an ever increasing breadth of program and diversity of students. His role is to provide leadership to the participants in the learning experience as they shape their objectives and to assist in tailoring educational programs to achieve the objectives. The faculty member makes available resources that will be useful to the student—information through computers, books, tapes, laboratory equipment, and perhaps work-study opportunities. He participates in the process by which evaluation is conducted on a continuing basis so that learners may be able to correct errors and identify deficiencies. The administrator, too, finds himself facing an assignment that is changing in its requirements for success. Traditional administrative skills as perceived by some will probably have to give way in importance to increased emphasis on working with broader constituencies to make the learning process work more efficiently.

A special kind of person with special skills and attitudes is going to be needed for community college work. This is already apparent, and the need will become even more apparent in the future because of pressures already at work. The transition from where we are to where we are going will be made

easier if faculty and administrators see themselves as partners in the management of learning.

MAJOR TRENDS

Although enrollments in four-year institutions of higher education will level off or decline during the decade, community college enrollments will continue to soar, reaching a level of approximately 4.5 million full- and part-time students by 1980. Students will be older, more self-directed, and more certain of their career interests. The effects that the aforementioned will have on the nation's community/junior colleges will probably develop into the following trends:

1. Continued support for the concept of the open-door policy will require more effective developmental education program offerings.

2. Faculty members will require radically improved preservice and inservice training if they are to meet effectively the needs of a diverse array of students.

3. Greatly expanded minority group enrollment will require dramatic increases in the number of minority group faculty representatives, counselors, and administrators. Expanded recruitment programs and inservice training will help resolve the current imbalance between the number of minority students and faculty members.

4. Strengthened lifelong learning programs will require institutional commitments and appropriate staffing well beyond the current level.

5. Clustered courses and core curricula will help to improve the articulation of career and transfer programs. In addition, work-study programs, part-time enrollment, intermittent enrollment, and external degrees offer promising alternatives to traditional procedures.

6. Closer linkage of the community with the college will be achieved through systematic needs assessment and communication efforts. Off-campus course offerings, involvement of community leaders in policy-making, television coverage of campus events, and outreach recruiting will help to insure a closer collaborative relationship between the community and the college.

7. New organizational structures that encourage those who should participate in decision-making to do so will emerge. The typical bureaucratic structure of the past, with its hierarchical alignment of administrators, staff, and students, will give way to a participatory management framework with both faculty and administrators serving as learning managers.

8. Result-oriented goals and objectives will facilitate a more effective allocation of resources for the benefit of the student and community.

9. The utilization of a greater diversity of media and hardware will enhance the satisfaction of meeting the needs and interests of the populace in the community.

10. The community college will take a more active role in assisting the community in the resolution of economic, educational, cultural, political, and social problems.

INNOVATIVE PROGRAMS

Relative to the foregoing topics, how does the health, physical education, and recreation division fit into the picture for contributing toward the provision of this comprehensive education? What are the implications for physical

education in the "new" college? In addressing ourselves to these questions, it is imperative that we discuss innovative physical education programs. There are numerous examples of these at the community college level. A few examples of these programs taking place at the present time at DeKalb College are: skin and scuba diving trips to Grand Cayman Island and Florida; skiing at Vail, Colorado; a European trip concerned with the visitation of physical education facilities, plants, programs, and places of historical interest in the development of physical education; and an interdisciplinary course to discover the development of man through science entitled "The Ascent of Man," which deals with the interrelationship of science and technology on the course of human events (of which physical education is a part) and consists of an on-campus seminar every two weeks. A television series transmitted for thirteen weeks serves as course instruction; the same program is shown twice a week on two different evenings.[6]

Other innovative physical education programs utilized in community colleges are various individualized approaches to learning, independent study options, student choice of independent study units, self-directed learning, goal-centered individualized learning elective curricula, miniquarter and trimester extended school-year plans, student-designed elective courses, contingency contracting, and competency-based programs. Fitness learning laboratories are another innovation. The program at Brookdale Community College is an example.[7] In their program they require a fitness profile for each entering freshman that includes a medical examination—physiological parameters that include height, weight, girth, cardiovascular, pulmonary function, muscular strength, and skinfold measurements. In addition, a physical activity interest inventory, physical activity history, and nutrition profile for each individual are developed and used.

Hodges did a research project with the purpose of determining the current status and organizational structure of physical education in public two-year colleges in the Midwest.[8] He writes: "Innovation and change were apparently a part of the service program at many of the colleges. Independent study was provided for at 41% of the colleges. Other innovative ideas currently in use included contract teaching, modular scheduling, mini-courses, closed-circuit television, and proficiency testing. Thirty-three percent of the colleges offered what they considered to be unusual or unique activities. The top five included self-defense activities (judo and karate), backpacking, canoeing, skiing, and cycling. It is interesting to note that 56% of the colleges augmented the faculty with community specialists."[9] The researcher concludes that physical education in the public two-year colleges in the Midwest is considered an integral part of the total college curriculum, and that future expectations appeared even more encouraging.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR THE COMMUNITY

Physical education in the "now" college includes the expansion of parameters from on-campus experiences to physical education for the community. It not only provides the accessibility to on-campus facilities, such as golf, tennis, swimming, and physical fitness measurement and testing, but also brings many of these activities to areas of closer proximity, such as churches, Ys, and clubs, both day and night whenever feasible. In addition, the utilization of instructional services that include qualified physical educators and others who are experts in their particular activity is essential. Moreover, the ultimate purpose

of these experiences should be to enhance the development of education and good health by the acquisition of skills, knowledge, and positive attitudes toward recreative experiences and lifelong physical activity. Bird suggests that "... once mobilized, this community partnership, under the direction and supervision of professional physical educators, could furnish a substantial creative resource opening to the adult community offerings that span the entire spectrum of human movement."[10]

A couple of examples of places where the emerging "community center school" has shown immediate success is the Human Resources Development Center in Hamilton County, Tennessee, and the John F. Kennedy Center in Atlanta, Georgia. In addition to providing the community with programs in health, physical education, and recreation, they serve many of the other social service delivery systems and civic functions. For the purpose of exhibiting the need for physical education beyond the student population, Bird writes that "... participation in physical activity has to have a place to happen, the tools to make it happen, and it must be stimulated and reinforced. Physical educators should readjust their sights and broaden their sphere of direct influence to include two-thirds more of the population."[11]

CONCLUSION

Students flocked to campuses all over the United States in the 1960s, as hundreds of community colleges were built. It was the decade of bricks and mortar, of staff recruitment and program development, and of advisory committees and master plans. The decade of the 1970s is the decade to fulfill the promise and to achieve the goals through the learning process.

It appears to be clearly discernible that economic, social, political, and societal pressures magnify the importance of the provision of community services for the populace by utilization of all the community resources that one can muster, with possibly the most important one being the community college. The community college is both the catalyst to stimulate a community consciousness and the product of this consciousness. In many cases, this institution of higher learning has helped to facilitate the establishment of new alignments and commonalities of interest among the aggregations of people in the community. Tomorrow's student will exhibit greater concern for shaping his own destiny. Curriculum offerings and institutional procedures need to be planned with student participation. Independent study opportunities, more flexible course schedules, and greater attention to individual learning styles will be required. College students are demanding that the learning process be shaped to their requirements. Community colleges are doing more than respond to change. They are influencing the direction of change in our society by the priorities that they are establishing.

Some critics will decry the aforementioned suggested roles for physical educators in the community college and predictive comments concerning physical education in the "now" college. They will charge that such a faith is naive and unrealistic. These people cannot envision themselves performing new and different roles; participating in new methods, programs, and teaching techniques; and serving a wider parameter in the community. With the changing role of higher education, the economy, new technology, the emphasis on accountability to the college student, the community, the profession, and oneself, among others, let me hasten to assure you that physical education in the "now" college, as suggested, may very likely become a reality.

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HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND RECREATION IN THE "NOW" COLLEGE

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Texas: land of contrast, where almost 11 million Texans are dealing effectively with diversity—thanks to education. They are learning and relearning at two-year colleges that have grown phenomenally during the last decade and are called by many different names—*community college, junior college,* or simply *college.* But for the tens of thousands of Texans enrolled in these publicly supported two-year institutions, they are the "now" colleges. They are comprehensive community colleges, combining the best of traditional education with effective answers for contemporary problems. Literally, they are where the community and college meet.

These institutions are sensitive to community needs. They are stable, yet have the resiliency to react quickly to changing educational needs in a rapidly changing world.

The Coordinating Board, Texas College University System, soon after its creation in the mid-sixties, foresaw the upcoming importance of these institutions. The board divided the state into 53 Junior College Regions; there are 48 publicly supported two-year colleges in Texas.

Ten years ago, only one in ten college-bound high school graduates enrolled for postsecondary study in junior colleges. By the fall of 1971, more than half of Texas's college freshmen and sophomores were in these two-year colleges. The Texas statewide system is now one of the largest in the United States. These are open-door institutions, available to all persons.

One important aspect of this new approach is the ever changing role of physical education in the "now" college. In order to understand this new role better, let us look at the underlying philosophy of physical education in a "now" college.

The philosophy of the Division of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation on the Northeast Campus of Tarrant County Junior College is unique not only in course offerings but in approach to educational experiences for the students. Our philosophy is based upon (1) the extension of life through a health-fitness course (Health Concepts), (2) the preservation of life through beginning and survival swimming and the Medical Self Help Program, and (3) the enjoyment of life through a lifetime sports and recreation program.

EXTENSION OF LIFE

In our philosophy, the extension of life is the most important concept. Not only students, but faculty and staff as well, can benefit from Health Concepts because of its emphasis on preventive medicine. This course is based on the predication that everyone wants to live longer. People can live a long, useful life without ever hitting a golf ball, but they cannot live a long, healthy life without a good heart, good lungs, and a good circulatory system. Heart disease is the number-one killer in America today. We provide scientific facts about the need for exercise and then illustrate what exercise will do physiologically and anatomically. We aid our students by providing techniques by which they can measure their own CVR efficiency and other fitness levels. A skinfold caliper, for example, measures fat content; the Harvard Step Test and the Cooper 12-minute test determine cardiovascular efficiency. Other evaluations indicate flexibility and strength. We then prescribe exercise programs for the student that will develop, maintain, and/or improve his fitness level.

In order to make this course available to the student's convenience and tailored to his particular learning pace, we have completely packaged it in two different formats, a written package and an audio-tutorial slide-tape presentation. This course is offered at a regular class time and also on a to-be-arranged basis. Many police officers, pilots, and other professional people have found this course to be very suitable because they may work at their own convenience.

Another innovation within our division is student contracting. After they have had Health Concepts and evaluated their fitness levels, many students like to continue, since they realize that consistency is the important key to fitness. We draw up contracts with the students on an arranged basis. They can work out anywhere they want—at a local school, at home, or in our facilities. The teacher is a learning manager or a resource person whose primary function is counseling students. The student lists what his personal objectives are and may reevaluate those goals periodically to decide upon realistic ones.

PRESERVATION OF LIFE

We consider our aquatics program second in importance in our program. Since Texas had 516 deaths attributed to drowning last year, our objective is to provide survival and other swimming skills to as many persons as possible. With an indoor, eight-lane heated swimming pool, our program is excellent. In addition to regular college students, we have about 1,000 children who learn to swim each summer in the Community Service Program. Our Medical Self Help Program also makes an important contribution to this area.

ENJOYMENT OF LIFE

Our lifetime sports program includes such courses as badminton, tennis, golf, archery, and scuba diving. These are activities that people can continue to participate in throughout life. Our courses at TCJC, Northeast Campus, are unique in that all are coeducational, contrary to the practice of most colleges and universities. Society is coeducational; consequently, our curriculum is based on that reality.

Our approach to teaching lifetime sports is nontraditional. For example, the student's time is not wasted in the classroom going over rules, terminology, scoring, etc., which ultimately have to be learned individually; these are taught in educational packages, thus allowing more time for practicing the actual activity. For example, the decompression charts in our scuba classes are all packaged for individualized learning.

In addition to the on-campus courses outlined above, we have some off-campus courses, which include horsemanship, canoeing, bowling, and roller skating. For bowling and roller skating, we have negotiated with public facilities. Our classes are scheduled around their regular hours.

In order to offer horsemanship to our students, we utilize the riding facilities at a local riding stable. Via television equipment, we recorded all horsemanship lectures, edited them, and wrote educational packages to supplement the tapes. Students view the tapes and complete the educational packages that complement these tapes. The students spend two Saturdays at the stables, where they receive professional instruction and actually handle the horses.

A similar course is canoeing. We made video tapes of canoeing techniques with the cooperation of the American Red Cross. We also have written packages that complement these tapes. The students spend ten hours in our swimming pool practicing their canoeing strokes. In addition, they spend a weekend on the Brazos River or at Lake Benbrook for the laboratory experience.

Our department is also offering contracting in the area of lifetime sports. Many students, because of scheduling problems, are unable to take the activity courses they need. These students may sign up for lifetime sports contracting. We have contracts available in tennis, bowling, golf, and canoeing. In addition, if the student is interested in a different activity, we will draw up a contract for that activity, providing we have enough supplementary materials. There are a few activities, such as team sports, which do not lend themselves to a contracting format, but since we do not teach team sports, this is no problem.

After the activity is selected, the instructor makes available information in the form of workbooks, handouts, media presentations, and individual meetings. The student is given a skills pretest to determine his beginning skill level. Then he is free to master the course objectives using the materials made available. The student may also choose to learn his skills off campus—say, golf or tennis from a pro—while still receiving college credit. Through the contracting course, it may be possible for a student to receive credit in many areas not available on campus, such as snow skiing, sailing, or any activity in which specific criteria can be met.

Other courses utilizing individualized materials are archery, fencing, badminton, bowling, and tennis. In order to make the multimedia kits that go with these packages more accessible to students, we have added in the gym a learning center with 25 carrels. This enables usage of a variety of instructional techniques. The lab is open at all hours the campus is in operation, thus enabling students to drop in at their convenience.

In physical education very few colleges offer credit by examination, but it has been available for some time within our division. There are students who come to us who already possess the skills taught in our classes, but in order to meet graduation requirements or catalog requirements, they need college credit. Rather than make them retake tennis, bowling, or whatever, we offer them a system of credit by examination. The interested student is given a course syllabus to see what the course involves and if after reading it he thinks he is competent in that area, he may then take the skills and knowledge tests. If he scores 80 percent or above, he is given a grade.

So far we have talked about the academic program, but to increase contact with the student body at large and the community we have a recreation program that includes community services.

In order to give the student an opportunity to use the skills he learns in our academic classes, and in keeping with our philosophy of enjoyment of life, the Tarrant County Junior College, Northeast Campus, HPER division has developed the Recreation Department to meet the needs, interests, and demands of "now" college students and staff and of our community.

Recreational services provided by the Recreation Department are (1) an intramural program for men, (2) an intramural program for women, (3) coed intramurals, (4) extramural club participation, (5) a student recreation program, and (6) community services, a continuing education noncredit program for the community.

Participants in the various recreational service programs come from academic classes where students have the opportunity to implement interests and skills in various activities on a competitive basis or in a recreational setting.

The men's, women's, and coed intramural programs in conjunction with an extramural program provide the students an opportunity to participate on a competitive basis against other students enrolled at TCJC-NE and other area colleges and universities. Activities include team sports, such as flag football, basketball, three-man basketball, volleyball, and softball, and individual-dual sports, such as golf, tennis, badminton, bowling, pass-punt-kick contests, free-throw contests, table tennis, cross-country, archery, weight lifting, fencing, spaceball, and other activities in response to student interest and needs.

The extramural program is an extension of the intramural programs, with intramural championship teams or individual champions competing with other intramural champions from junior and senior colleges in our geographic region. In 1971 and 1972, the men's intramural basketball championship team won the state extramural basketball championship against senior colleges and junior colleges in our area. In 1974 our women's basketball team won the state championship and participated in the national AAU tournament in Gallup, New Mexico.

Sports clubs are another recreational service provided for students with specific needs and interests. HPER staff members provide supervision and assist in organizing activities for the different clubs. Student interest determines sports clubs that will be organized, and the number and types of clubs that are active vary from year to year.

One of the most popular recreational programs provides students and faculty with the opportunity to utilize our facilities and equipment under HPER staff and supervision. At the present time we are open five days a week for student recreation. Students and faculty-staff may check out equipment with their ID cards or utilize facilities in a recreational setting during their leisure or free time. Our equipment and facilities are available to recreational service pro-

grams from 7:30 a.m. to 10:30 p.m., Monday through Thursday, and from 7:30 a.m. to 5 p.m., Fridays. Academic classes have priority in using facilities and equipment, but when a facility is not used for classes, it is available for recreational service programs. Equipment available to student and staff includes basketballs; volleyballs; footballs; tennis, golf, and archery equipment; horseshoes; badminton rackets; speed bags and gloves; bumper-pool equipment; and exercise equipment, such as bicycles and exergenies. HPER facilities include one large gymnasium, a weight room, an indoor swimming pool, sauna baths, gymnastic areas, a combative area, trampolines, a spaceball area, and six handball courts. Outdoor facilities include tennis courts, horseshoe pits, a seven-hole golf course with artificial greens, and jogging-cycling trails.

Students not enrolled in physical education classes have the opportunity to participate in the various recreational programs, and community needs and interests are met by a variety of community-service continuing-education classes and programs. The HPER continuing education classes and activities are noncredit classes or supervised recreational activities. During the past two years we have averaged 2,500 participants in our continuing education program. Classes and activities offered under continuing education include a family recreation program similar to the student recreation program in which the community pays a fee and utilizes our facilities and equipment in a recreational setting. The program is for one college semester. In 1972-73 (fall, spring, and summer sessions), 1,105 people participated in the family recreation program. Youth and adult swimming is another program that has been very successful. In 1972-73, 770 students enrolled in the swimming program. Other continuing education classes include figure control, golf, tennis, gymnastics-trampoline, yoga, scuba diving, jujitsu, self-defense for women, and a family fitness program.

The Division of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation is an integral part of the "now" college. The division provides a variety of activities to meet the needs and interests of its diverse clientele. Individuals have the opportunity to learn skills in the academic or continuing education programs and implement these skills on a competitive basis or within a recreational setting. Tarrant County Junior College, Northeast Campus, is one of the many "now" colleges.

WOMEN IN SPORTS: CROSS-NATIONAL COMPARISONS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND BODY IMAGE

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Every society prescribes legitimized role expectations according to gender (see reference 3 for a critique of gender roles). Such expectations raise noteworthy theoretical propositions concerning "variations from group to group and from time to time, their interrelations, the extent to which encumbents [*sic*] of particular positions actually conform to or deviate from them, and the like."[14] One aspect of role performance is to consider the role expectations in one area of be-

havior and the degree of compatibility of expectations in another segment of one's life space. *Role conflict* (more specifically interrole conflict) is the term used to denote a situation when the incumbent occupies two or more roles simultaneously with conflicting role expectations.[12 23] An individual exposed to role conflict cannot behave consistently with both sets of prescriptions at the same time.[5]

In the United States the role expectations of woman and athlete have traditionally been contradictory. Hart points out, " The woman who wishes to participate in sports and remain 'womanly' faces great stress. By choosing sport she usually places herself outside the social mainstream."[13] The history of physical education for girls and women has emphasized light exercises and rhythmic dancing rather than competitive sports.[7 8] In a recent study Broverman et al. report the behavioral traits a group of clinical psychologists feel characterize a healthy adult female—she is dependent, emotional, intuitive, and passive.[6] However, the traits desirable for athletic participation—aggressiveness, tough-mindedness, dominance, self-confidence, and risk taking—are usually associated with males rather than females.[12]

Further specification of the social expectations associated with the woman athlete roles has been outlined by Metheny.[18] She notes that athletic competition for women varies with the activity. Least acceptable physical activities, and thus the greatest likelihood of role conflict, include body contact, application of force to a heavy object, projecting the body through space over long distances, and face-to-face competition. Conversely, the most acceptable forms of competition include presentation of the body in esthetically pleasing patterns, use of a manufactured device to facilitate bodily movement, utilization of a light implement, and maintenance of a spatial barrier with the opponent. Empirical findings generally support Metheny's conclusions regarding variations in social acceptability of sports for women.[11 21] Recent research by Malumphy likewise indicates variations and inconsistencies among woman athletes themselves regarding the effect of participation in sports on their feminine image.[15] Some women in this study feel that athletic participation enhances their feminine image.

The importance of role conflict is evident when the potential effects are considered. If the individual has internalized two contradictory prescriptions, we might anticipate behavioral and attitudinal ambiguity, confusion, and anxiety.[5] Parsons points out that exposure to role conflict is likely to create a situation that is incompatible with a harmonious integration of personality.[20] A major focus of the present paper is on an analysis of degrees of athletic participation by women and the dependent variables of psychological well-being and body image. Specifically, if woman athletes experience role conflict, its concomitant effects are likely to be reflected in these aspects of self-identity. Furthermore, from the literature on variations in the type of physical activity acceptable to women, we might expect that the type of sport involvement will show corresponding differences in psychological well-being and body image.

The dependent variables, (1) psychological well-being and (2) body image, have long research traditions and are considered reliable indicators of feelings toward one's self. The measures of psychological well-being follow a research tradition from the University of Chicago and the University of Michigan.[2 22] The specific items dealing with aspects of psychological well-being tap feelings of contentment, life satisfaction, and happiness.[15]

Since athletic participation is a physical activity and body appearance is likely to be a major factor in the female identity, we used body image as the second dependent variable. Marcia and Friedman indicate that the body structure is particularly important in the ego-identity of women.[17] Secord and Jourard point out that "the individual's attitudes toward his body are of crucial importance to any comprehensive theory of personality. . . ."[29] Additionally, studies of body image show positive correlations with self-esteem and self-concept[8, 28, 29, 35] and negative correlations with anxiety and insecurity.[29] We used a modification of the Secord and Jourard scale that was used in most of the studies of body image cited.[36]

A particular level of analysis in this study is the presentation of cross-national data collected in India, Australia, and the United States. Glaser and Strauss have noted the advantage of comparative data in determining the structural boundaries and generality of social facts.[9] Comparative data also provide a means for independent checking and validation of initial facts. In short, we will be interested in determining the consistency of our findings when examined from a cross-national perspective for purposes of theory clarification and construction.

METHOD

The data for this study were collected by means of a self-administered questionnaire. One sample of respondents consisted of women athletes in the United States who participated in the 1972 Women's National Intercollegiate Championships in basketball, gymnastics, swimming and diving, and track and field, or who had participated in the 1972 Olympic tryouts in gymnastics. The purpose of selecting respondents from these four sports was to get a variety of respondents from sports that seem to differ in the degree of social acceptability for women. The number and percentage of respondents were highest for basketball players (N=120) and gymnasts (N=116). Because the swimming and diving and track and field championships were held late in the school year, the time was limited for securing addresses and mailing. As a result, the number of respondents from these sports was less (swimming and diving, N=60; track and field, N=32). These women were deeply involved in their athletic roles and might represent the epitome of the stereotyped woman athlete. Separate data analysis was made of the entire sample of athletes and the two subsamples of basketball players and gymnasts.[37]

A second sample of American college women was gathered from students enrolled in general sociology classes at Bowling Green State University in Ohio (N=275). The composition of these classes approximated a cross section of college women at this institution. Bowling Green is similar to many medium-sized state universities in the United States. For comparative analysis these respondents were dichotomized into high and low participants in sports, but it was coincidental if any of the high participants were competing at the national level, as were the respondents in the woman athlete sample.

Two additional samples of respondents were secured from university women in Australia and India. The Australian women constitute a sample (N=252) including most of the female students taking courses in physical education at a teachers college in western Australia in the spring of 1973. Since physical education is compulsory for all students at the college, this sample closely approximates a cross section of woman students enrolled there. Separate analyses were made of the high and low participants in sports.

The Indian women were enrolled in lower-level courses in psychology in a major southcentral Indian university in the winter of 1973. The upper-level students were studying for examinations at the time the questionnaire was administered, so they were unavailable as respondents. The administrator of the questionnaires was an experienced researcher and reported no other particular bias in the sample. The Indian sample was identified as representative of college students from that region of India.[38] The Australian and Indian samples were also divided into high and low sports participants.

Empirical cutting points were used with these samples to dichotomize them into high and low sports participation.[39] Thus, we have three levels of involvement in sports by the American women, the national intercollegiate competitors and the high and low participants at Bowling Green State University, and two levels of involvement (high and low participants) of Australian and Indian university students. These samples include sufficient variations to explore relationships between our primary independent variable (involvement in sport by women) and the selected dependent variables. Additionally, the cross-national analyses provide a testing ground to explore the generality of findings in several social settings.

FINDINGS

One of the stereotypes of woman athletes is that they tend to be "Amazons." If this is true, comparisons of woman athletes and nonathletes on the dependent variables of psychological well-being and body image may reflect the differences in physique. Data presented in Table 1 do not support this stereotype. Comparisons of the high and low participants within all three samples of students are very similar. When the height and weight of the woman athletes are analyzed, their average weight is slightly more than the other American samples; however, they are also slightly taller. Among the woman athletes, as might be expected in light of the emphasis of their sport, the woman gymnasts' weight is least in relation to their height. While these data do not tell us anything about the perceived attractiveness of the women, they suggest that the height and weight ratio is not a likely explanation for differences on the measures of psychological well-being or body image.

TABLE 1

Height and Weight Comparisons of Woman Students

	Mean Height	*Mean Weight (lbs.)*
All woman athletes	5 ft. 6 in.	129
Basketball	5 ft. 7 in.	136
Gymnasts	5 ft. 5 in.	116
American students		
High participation in sports activities	5 ft. 5 in.	126
Low participation in sports activities	5 ft. 5 in.	125

	Mean Height	*Mean Weight (lbs.)*
Australian students		
High participation in sports activities	5 ft. 5 in.	122
Low participation in sports activities	5 ft. 5 in.	121
Indian students		
High participation in sports activities	5 ft. 1 in.	112
Low participation in sports activities	5 ft. 0 in.	101

Table 2 presents data on the samples and subsamples and the three dimensions of psychological well-being. The data generally indicate that participation in athletics is not associated with a negative affect. When comparing the high and low participants in all three samples of university students the women who are high participants demonstrate positive attitudes toward life. The one exception to these findings is evident in the sample of Indian students. However, in this sample two of the three dimensions support the conclusion that athletic participation is associated with a positive psychological well-being. A comparison of the woman athletes and the American subsample of high participants indicates they have a similar outlook on life. With all three measures of psychological well-being the gymnasts show more positive attitudes than the basketball subsample. Yet by all measures, the basketball players demonstrate more positive responses than the low participants. In short, our expectation of a negative relationship between athletic participation and psychological well-being was not supported.

TABLE 2

Psychological Well-Being Responses of Woman Students by Type and Extent of Participation in Sports Activites

		Generally Feel in Good Spirits	*Very Satisfied with Life*	*Happiness in Life*
	N	(percent responding "Most of the time")		
All woman athletes	294	69	63	74
Gymnasts	104	74	71	77
Basketball	119	65	59	72
American students				
High participation in sports activities	81	74	69	76
Low participation in sports activities	194	48	44	54

	N	*Generally Feel in Good Spirits* (percent responding "Most of the time")	*Very Satisfied with Life* (percent responding "Most of the time")	*Happiness in Life* (percent responding "Most of the time")
Australian students				
High participation in sports activities	104	56	63	59
Low participation in sports activities	148	44	40	43
Indian students				
High participation in sports activities	61	46	40	43
Low participation in sports activities	31	52	32	23

Table 3 displays items measuring attitudes toward various parts or processes of one's body.[40] The ranking of items in the table is based on the left column, which is the entire sample of woman athletes. It is interesting to note, however, that the ranking of items from one sample of respondents is approximately the same across all four samples of students. When comparing the responses of woman athletes with the sample of American students the findings do not support the expectations of the athletes' having negative feelings toward their bodies. On the contrary, the general pattern of responses suggests that athletic participation is positively associated with body image. This generalization is apparent when comparing the athletes and the American students. It is likewise true on most items when comparing the high and low participation subsamples within the American student sample. Additionally, this conclusion is evident in the majority of the items marked positively in the Australian and Indian samples. These findings raise serious questions about the assumption that athletic participation by women is likely to lead to negative images of themselves.

TABLE 3

Percent Positive Body Image Responses of Woman Students by Type and Extent of Participation in Sports Activites

	Woman Athletes			*American Students*		*Australian Students*		*Indian Students*	
	All	Bb.	Gym.	High Part.	Low Part.	High Part.	Low Part.	High Part.	Low Part.
		119	104	81	194	104	148	61	31
Health	97	96	98	92	77	78	65	75	69
Energy level	91	92	89	85	43	74	35	66	47
Sex (m or f)	84	81	85	78	83	71	68	40	40
Body build	72	62	72	48	47	44	35	76	37
Face	71	71	70	59	47	37	30	43	37
Head hair	70	73	64	77	68	61	59	45	43
Posture	69	64	74	60	35	49	33	53	52
Legs	67	59	65	62	41	38	26	42	34
Skin texture	62	63	43	64	54	44	40	53	30
Height	62	62	60	58	52	47	45	48	45
Waist	56	49	62	47	42	41	35	48	28

	Woman Athletes			*American Students*		*Australian Students*		*Indian Students*	
	All	Bb. 119	Gym. 104	High Part. 81	Low Part. 194	High Part. 164	Low Part. 148	High Part. 61	Low Part. 31
Back	55	54	57	54	31	31	26	50	24
Weight	54	51	56	41	38	42	33	41	21
Profile	53	55	51	43	30	26	27	54	31
Hips	51	55	54	32	28	25	22	41	24
Bust	51	58	53	41	33	32	38	57	47
Nose	48	51	48	47	37	34	28	35	41
Arms	47	51	53	39	28	34	28	34	17
Neck	47	51	47	48	28	23	34	37	24
Shape of head	46	51	40	44	30	26	23	32	28
Ankles	44	41	46	49	30	32	29	25	17
Chin	43	47	41	44	26	29	27	39	41
Body hair	39	39	42	34	23	20	22	33	23
Feet	37	27	23	38	30	17	23	29	17
Appetite	34	38	29	26	21	23	21	67	33

The important finding reflected in Table 3 is that athletic participation is associated with a positive body image—across all three nationalities. When the responses by gymnasts and basketball players to the body image items are analyzed, however, the differences between the sports do not reveal consistent differences. These data in Table 3 suggest that the body image items are measuring a different dimension of self-attitudes than the three measures of psychological well-being in Table 2. We expected that there would be differences in body image between the gymnasts and basketball players that would reflect in more positive body images by the gymnasts. Since this was not apparent, it may be that even with greater public acceptance of the more esthetically pleasing gymnastics performances, and the probable reflection of this acceptance in perceived well-being, both groups of athletes view their bodies in relation to the way they use them in their chosen sports. Or, perhaps, their physical expression through sport promotes positive body-cathexis regardless of the social acceptability of the sport.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings presented in this study raise serious doubts about the stereotypes of the woman athlete. Our data do not indicate that she is likely to be an "Amazon." Furthermore, the assumptions of the woman athlete roles resulting in negative self-attitudes are not supported. The findings comparing the psychological well-being of basketball players and gymnasts do suggest that differences in the type and social acceptability of physical activity are variables that should be analyzed. However, these variables were not important in the concomitant body image items.

While the findings of this paper are exploratory, their consistency and the similarities noted from the cross-national data lend considerable support and credence to them. There are several tentative explanations for the positive relationships displayed between aspects of self-identity and athletic participation. Apparently, even though woman athletes have frequently received negative sanctions, their participation in sports has been sufficiently rewarding to counter the social costs and tensions associated with the conflicting roles. It might be argued that for the woman athlete the athletic role is of primary salience and she does not seriously embrace her feminine role, i.e., she plays the latter role with detachment and little personal involvement.[41] This conclusion, however, is

not supported by additional data collected on the samples that show the woman athletes measure as high on questionnaire items dealing with femininity as the nonathletes.[32] Another possible explanation is that many female athletes are sufficiently secure in their femininity and they can participate in a socially defined unfeminine activity without suffering an identity crisis.[12 34]

We would suggest also that our society is moving toward a broadening of the sex roles. There is less agreement in defining the male and female roles than in the past. When alternative roles are open to women, they have increased freedom of choice (and responsibility) and "those women who have developed an independent sense of self and positive self-esteem will be able to elect their roles and enjoy their freedom of choice."[1] In this sense, the increased freedom to select alternative courses of action may be initially stressful; yet this social situation is likely to be the prelude to a redefinition of appropriate behavior. Perhaps social change has already advanced to the state where the sex roles are less sharply differentiated and more symmetrical (see reference 14, p. 659). Thus, there is the need to redefine the probable consequences of athletic participation for females. Several studies have cited significant differences between athletes and nonathletes; however, most of this research has stressed the positive aspects of participation for males.[24 25 26 27 30 31] According to the findings of the present study, we would anticipate that with an increased accumulation of research on female participation the positive consequences will become more evident. Furthermore, the cross-national data presented would suggest that this conclusion is not peculiar to the American society.

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35. These surveys found that self-reports of psychological well-being have considerable validity and reliability; the actual wording of our questionnaire item is as follows: "I generally feel in good spirits," "I am very satisfied with life," "I find a good deal of happiness in life." The possible response categories were: "most of the time," "much of the time," "some of the time," and "seldom."

36. See reference 22 regarding the adequacy of this measure.

37. Theoretically, the role conflict for gymnastics should be less than for basketball players. The emphasis in gymnastics is on the development of balance, grace, and use of the apparatus to present the body in an esthetically pleasing manner. On the other hand, basketball involves hard running, scrambling, and rebounding after the ball in an unladylike fashion and frequent body contact with opponents.

38. Based on the personal knowledge of one of the authors and research on social change in India, the female sex role in the Indian culture is far more traditional than in Australia or the United States; see also reference 19.

39. Since the cutting points differ with the samples, the percentages of high and low participants are not comparable between samples.

40. The response categories for each part or process of the body were: "Have strong feelings and wish a change could somehow be made," "Don't like, but can put up with," "Have no particular feelings one way or the other," "Better off than many women," and "Consider myself fortunate." If the respondent marked one of the latter two responses, a positive response was indicated.

41. This would be an example of Goffman's "role distance"; see also reference 10.

42. The authors will provide these data on request.

SYMBOLIC SOCIALIZATION: A TENTATIVE DISCOURSE

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A belief in socialization is the cornerstone of education. It is the essential rationale upon which rest our programs in physical education and athletics. This belief, however, presents us with a problem. We experience great difficulty in demonstrating the actual existence of socialization effects in schools, in colleges, and in programs of physical education and athletics.[5 8 9 10 12] It might be then, on the one hand, that, contrary to the belief, socialization does not occur in such educational institutions and programs. On the other hand, of course, it might be our research methodology at fault. Thus, we might argue that socialization does occur and it is simply that our research techniques are insufficiently refined to detect it. There is, however, a third alternative; perhaps we

are using an inappropriate theoretical model of socialization. Admittedly this is a rather unusual approach to the problem, but as I read the literature in the social sciences I find myself, like Alice's Queen of Hearts, believing sometimes six impossible things before breakfast.

Perhaps we in education, physical education, and athletics are indeed using an inappropriate model of socialization. The model that we typically use I call the *interaction* model of socialization. This is a model that was developed in order to explain the socialization of the child in the family. It was developed essentially from various psychological considerations of the family vis-a-vis child development. I have some difficulty in believing that the situation in the school, in the college, in the physical education program, and in the athletic program is sufficiently analogous to that existing in the family to permit the use of this model.

What then are the alternatives? There do exist, in fact, a number of noninteractionist concepts of socialization, that is to say, concepts of socialization in which the source of socialization effects is not located in interpersonal interactions but rather is *external* to such interactions. I would like to offer you three such concepts of socialization. (I should note that this is by no means an inclusive list of noninteraction concepts.) First, institutional socialization is a concept in which socialization effects occur as a consequence of the structural connections between the socializing institutions and given positions in the occupational and social structure.[4,5,6,13] An example of this is the professional socialization of medical students, which is dependent upon the structural linkages between medical school and the occupational and social position of doctor. A second concept is cultural compression, a concept from cultural anthropology that refers to the very rapid and often quite massive socialization that occurs as a result of *rites de passage*.[7,11] Third, there is the notion of labeling often referred to in deviancy and criminology.[1,10] This is a concept in which socialization occurs as a consequence of an externally applied social label.

Three very diverse concepts of socialization, yet it is possible, I think, to generalize from them. It is possible to argue perhaps that these three concepts are examples of a more general concept of *symbolic socialization*, which, I suggest, occurs as a consequence of a symbolic act, an act in which a person is symbolically identified as occupying a particular social role. Such a symbolic act would be an initiation rite, for example, upon the completion of which a child becomes a man. Other examples might be the final PhD oral, upon which one moves symbolically from graduate student to professional, or the jury's decision of guilty whereby a citizen becomes symbolically transformed into a thief, a rapist, or a murderer.

The suggestion is being made here that socialization effects occur as a consequence of such symbolic acts. Behavioral changes, attitudinal changes, and even personality changes occur as a result of symbolic acts. A person who is symbolically identified as a particular social role becomes that role; he takes on the characteristics of that role and fulfills the interaction expectations that surround it. He is a man; he is a doctor of philosophy; he is a thief, a rapist, or a murderer.

Let me say here that I recognize the possible importance of interaction as a reinforcement mechanism of such socialization. I would suggest, however, that interaction is simply that, a mechanism for reinforcement that can operate only after a symbolic act of identification and within the limits set by that act. I would suggest furthermore that interaction is important only in inverse relation to the power of the symbolic act. By this I mean that where the symbolic act is

powerful, where the actor takes on the given social role automatically and without question, then interaction reinforcement is unnecessary. The interaction mechanism can play a part, however, when the symbolic act is somewhat less powerful, where the taking on of the social role is somewhat uncertain and where the socialization is less complete.

Let us consider now the power of the symbolic act. I would like to offer three sets of variables that affect the power of the symbolic act. One set of variables revolves around the issue of legitimacy. Thus, symbolic power is dependent upon (1) the degree of legitimacy of the symbolic act in the culture in which it occurs, (2) the degree of legitimacy of the conferer of the symbolic act, and (3) the degree of legitimacy of the social role conferred by the symbolic act. Put simply, the greater the legitimacy, the greater the power of the symbolic act and the more effective and complete the symbolic socialization.

A second set of variables is concerned with value. Thus, symbolic power is dependent upon (1) the perceived value of the social role in the culture in which the symbolic act occurs and (2) the perceived value of the social role to the socializee. Here also the greater the value, the greater the power of the symbolic act and the more effective and complete the symbolic socialization.

The third set of variables concerns cultural understanding. Thus, symbolic power is dependent upon (1) the degree to which an understanding of the symbolism involved in the act pervades the culture in which the act occurs (i.e., what the act means) and (2) the degree to which an understanding of the social role conferred by the symbolic act pervades the culture (i.e., the nature of the role, the set of expectations associated with it, its value, and so on). Once more, the greater the cultural understanding, the greater the power of the symbolic act and the more effective and complete the symbolic socialization.

What, you might ask, has all this to do with physical education and athletics? Well, throughout their tenure with us we confront participants with many symbolic acts. Many of these acts are, of course, of negligible symbolic power, but a few are quite significant. The process of selection of an athletic team is rife with significant symbolic acts. The boy who is selected for his junior high school basketball team is symbolically identified as an athlete, the boy who is cut from the team is symbolically identified as not an athlete. The concept of symbolic socialization suggests that any socialization differences that may occur between these two boys occur primarily as a consequence of the symbolic act of role identification—athlete—and not because of differences in interaction experiences.

Perhaps, then, by employing this concept of socialization we may be able to understand better what is happening symbolically around us in education, physical education, and athletics. On the other hand, of course, it may simply be one of the Queen of Hearts' impossible things; unless you have had one of her tarts for breakfast.

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SPORT VIOLENCE: AN OVERVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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It has been some years now since J.P. Scott delivered his address on sport and aggression to the Second International Congress of Sport Psychology.[1] It represented very nearly the sum total of what was then known, or speculated about, regarding the occurrence of violence in sport. Strangely, however, no references were made to any systematic studies that directly involved sport as a variable. In fact, none of the other delegates made reference to such studies except Layman who made reference to four studies, all of which were done over a decade earlier.[2] A search of the literature subsequently revealed that with the exception of a few discursive comments on sport and violence, there simply was no work done in the area.

In order not to belabor the issue, it is perfectly admissible that much understanding was, and is, gleaned from the nonsport literature on aggression. The addresses of Scott and Layman appeared to be the spark needed to ignite the interests of sport-oriented scientists from many disciplines in the application of existing theories and models of aggressive behavior in sport contexts. In the six years following the Washington, D.C., congress, well over thirty noteworthy works have appeared that center specifically on sport-related aggression. A great majority of these deal directly with the proposals and ideas forwarded by Scott and Layman.

This paper is concerned with the research and other writings that involve sport and aggression. Naturally enough, however, research findings not specifically related to sport contexts are considered when appropriate. The paper is divided into five basic parts: (1) innate propensity, (2) psychological stress, (3) physical or verbal attack, (4) in-group/out-group competition, and (5) socialization. Much overlap, however, occurs between the parts with regard to their

conceptual frameworks and related research. This is unavoidable but understandable in light of the tremendously complex nature of the problem. No single scheme or model can explain sport violence. Taken together, however, they offer much in the way of understanding about the phenomenon.

INNATE PROPENSITY

By now, everyone has heard reference made to the theory that violence in man is an innate characteristic. The most noteworthy proponents of this notion are found among psychoanalysts, who through case studies and animal observation have come to believe that human aggression is resultant of pent-up internal energy discharge. Not so noteworthy, from a purely scientific point of view, are the claims of such ethologists as Lorenz[3] and Ardrey[4] who, like the psychoanalysts, make unsubstantiable leaps from animal to human behavior.

Sport theorists and scientists have had little supportive to say about the relevance or tenability of instinct theory in explaining or predicting sport violence. A noteworthy exception is the position taken by Tandy and Laflin, who build what appears to be an historical argument for the instinct theory. They propose that although the aggressive instinct may still exist in man, we need to learn how to alleviate it through positive methods, such as engaging in competitive sport. They conclude their statement by saying that it really doesn't make any difference whether violence is instinctual or learned—what does make a difference is that the role of sport in the development of the American character be further scrutinized, since sport will continue to influence American society.[5]

Most usually the argument against the instinct theory is that since there is an alleged accumulated drive toward aggressiveness, it would follow that the discharge of that aggressiveness (through direct sport participation or through vicarious catharsis) would tend to make that person more docile thereafter. This, most often, has not been found to be the case. Layman sums up this aspect of the literature appearing prior to 1968 quite well:

> Controlled studies [i.e., Husman[6]; Johnson and Hutton[7]; Lemkau[8]; Stone[9]] indicate that when aggression occurs in the presence of anger there is a decrease in the level of anger and a decrease in the tendency to aggress for a short period. Also, unless the individual has feelings of guilt because of the aggressive act, there will be a reduction of tension and improved feeling of well-being. However, when aggression occurs in the absence of anger, there is an *increase* in the tendency to aggress, unless the tendency to aggress is weakened by guilt or anxiety. Thus, reactive aggression in general supports the catharsis hypothesis but instrumental aggression does not (p. 29).[2]

On a more recent level, Goldstein and Arms[10] reject the theory of catharsis when applied to spectators. They measured pre- and postgame hostility among football fans and found that regardless of who won or lost, postgame hostility was greater than pregame hostility. No such increase was noted among spectators at a gymnastic meet—a noncontact sport. This, note Goldstein and Arms, is directly contradictory to the catharsis hypothesis and in fact supports the social-learning theory that watching aggression will strengthen or increase one's own level of aggression.[10]

Despite such contradictory evidence, the catharsis hypothesis still incites research efforts. The apparent attractiveness seems to be due to the fact that in some instances it seems applicable, and the amount of sport-related literature indicating otherwise is scant.

Other noteworthy comments on the innate nature of man's aggressiveness in sport can be found in the writings of Smith[11] and Dunning,[12] as well as in a myriad of paperbacks written by athletes, philosophers, and others. Most responsible theorists have not disregarded the instinct theory as completely invalid. Their reluctance to do so apparently stems from the few studies supportive of the catharsis hypothesis, as well as the often maddening untestability of certain precepts couched in Freudian and neo-Freudian thought. Further, applying what little insight that has been afforded by laboratory research to a real-life setting has proved frustrating as a result of contamination effects.

Perhaps the most one can hope for with regard to the instinct theory of aggression is to realize that irrespective of one's decision of acceptance or rejection, environmental and social sources loom as vastly more important in explicating the full impact of man's aggressiveness on his sport pursuit or in explicating the full impact of man's sport pursuit on his level of aggressiveness.

PSYCHOLOGICAL STRESS

The frustration aggression hypothesis, originally formulated by Dollard and his associates, has been the primary backdrop for most of the general research done in aggression.[13] Since its origin, the frustration aggression hypothesis has been modified to account for more and more exigencies. There are those, Smith most notably, who have relegated the importance of this hypothesis in sport-related violence to a minor plateau. Smith explains this position as resultant of its relative inapplicability—that is, most violence committed in sport is "instrumental" insofar as extrinsic rewards are the motivating force:

> . . . much of the violence in sport seems to be of this type [instrumental]; violence is done in order to attain social rewards (such as the respect or approval of others) and as an aid to winning.
>
> Although frustration and anger are not necessarily present, the latter state seems often to be induced, perhaps, to justify the aggression.[11]

As an alternative to this hypothesized inducement theory, however, it seems just as reasonable that while violence is often used as a strategy in winning, such strategic use of violence may have become the dominant choice of behavior as a result of previous frustrating experiences. The act of violence, in such an instance, was perpetrated after the frustration and subsequent anger, but only upon recognition of an appropriate cue—that cue being the opportunity to have the act appear as though it was done as a means of winning or social approval.[14] The notion that anger can be brought on after the fact appears to be at odds with prevalent theory, which states that the state of anger may only be achieved if frustration precedes it.[14] It seems possible, therefore, that the inducement of anger to which Smith makes mention is not really inducement at all, but rather a redirection of anger brought about by previous frustration.

The point of this foregoing line of reasoning is that while much of the violence in sport is of the instrumental type, much too is very likely to be of the reactive type in which frustration and subsequent anger are involved. The fact that any subsequent violence is instrumental in nature may be purely coincidental.

Layman has contributed to this area of concern also. She observes that competition itself is an agent of frustration for the loser, who may be angered at having lost, and for the winner, who may have been angered at the loser's attempts to block his goal.[2] This situation has manifested itself quite often among spectators and players alike.

There are other psychological considerations besides frustration that need to be accounted for. For example, various psychological characteristics appear to be instrumental in allowing or predisposing an athlete (or team) to violence. Hatfield observes that athletes who are more intolerant of socially ambiguous situations are more apt to aggress than those who are tolerant of such situations. Further, he observes that athletes who are intolerant of ambiguity tend to gravitate toward team sports, possibly as a strategy on their part to minimize through cohesive action or by diffusion of responsibility the personal effects of inherent in-group and out-group sources of ambiguity.[15] Small wonder, then, that more violence is observed in team as opposed to coactive or individual sports.

It must be concluded that before the frustration aggression hypothesis is discarded as minimally important or before psychological characteristics of athletes are overlooked as untruitful sources of information on sport violence, research is needed. To date, most of what has been written about these areas is conjecture based on research or speculation that does not involve sport as a variable.

PHYSICAL AND VERBAL ATTACK

Although related to frustration aggression literature, physical and verbal attack situations are common enough in sport to warrant separate discussion. Greenwell and Dengerink find that aggression is influenced not only by the actual severity of physical attack but also by the attacked individual's belief about its harshness. This belief, it seems, is intensified if the attacked individual perceives that he is in a competitive situation.[16] These findings indicate that interpretation of the situation is an important consideration in interpreting aggression.

Verbal attack also appears to have the potential of eliciting aggressive responses. Geen distinguishes between verbal attack and frustration. He describes them both as having the capacity to elicit anger and thus aggression.[17] Gentry also makes such a distinction.[18] Both Geen and Gentry observe that verbal attack provokes more aggression than did frustration.

As was the case with the general areas involving the instinct question and the psychological stressors issues, little, if any, research has been carried out in this area that relates directly to a sport context. It is quite possible that an athlete engaged in sport would respond differently than would the average research subject either to pain (as in physical attack) or to disagreement, sarcasm, or negative appraisal (as in verbal attack). Again, as Greenwell and Dengerink point out, interpretation of the situation is an important consideration in defining aggression.[18]

IN-GROUP OUT-GROUP COMPETITION

International sport competition has long been heralded as a means of increasing international good will and understanding. There have been many situations that tend to contradict this belief. The 1964 Peru-Argentina soccer competition is one case in point. The riot that followed the game left 293 dead. Another example that contradicts this long-held belief occurred when, presumably resultant of a border dispute between Honduras and El Salvador, riots followed all three World Cup soccer games between these two countries. These riots resulted in the eventual severing of diplomatic relations between the two countries. Such violence may be explained, at least in part, by reviewing the literature on intergroup conflict.

Sport, by its very nature, has the capacity to evoke strong feelings of identification among players and spectators alike. These strong feelings of identification lead to the formation of in-groups and out-groups. M. and C.W. Sherif note that "when groups engage in reciprocally competitive and frustrating experiences . . . unfavorable stereotypes come into use in relation to the out-group and its members" (p. 10).[19] Carrying the Sherif observations a bit further, relative to sport, strong feelings of identification can become heightened such that ethnocentric behavior is the result. As Heinila has pointed out, open conflict, or violence, is more imminent in situations where such marked separation of competing groups occurs. Further, Heinila states, "the higher the expectations of teams and of the public with respect to success, the more frustrated will the 'in-group' be in case of failure—and the higher the probability of unfair behavior and inter-group violence of some kind or another" (p. 346).[20]

There is another aspect of intergroup violence with regard to the cleavage of teams resulting from in-group and out-group feelings. Layman alludes to the idea that modeling of the aggressive behavior of team leaders by other players can occur more frequently if a team is cohesive.[2] Team cohesiveness is a product of such behaviors traditionally associated with interpersonal attraction and group identification. Hatfield refers to this process also:

> . . . as the social situation [i.e., sport contest] becomes too complex or insoluble, or when the team is confronted with too many novel situations . . . their strategy of friendliness no longer works in their favor. Disorganization results, causing an increased impersonality within the team plagued with such ambiguities. . . . the opposition, drawn even closer by their well-executed strategy of cohesiveness, becomes even more distant from the team caught in the throes of social ineptitude. This "distance," coupled with frustration felt by the losing team, is suggested to be a common inflammatory factor supporting the occurrence of player violence in team sports (p. 5).[15]

Underlying much of the literature and research on in-group and out-group aggression is the frustration-aggression hypothesis. It appears that frustration is brought on more easily if a group effort is thwarted as opposed to an individual's.[20,21]

SOCIALIZATION

Perhaps more has been written on the socialization of young athletes into violence than any other aspect of sport violence. Most of what has been written, however, can be summed up in a single paragraph:

The socialization into aggressive behavior involves reference being made to normative groups, from which sanctions for violence are derived, and from role models, which serve as a frame of reference for aggressive behavior. The aggressive behavior resulting from the socialization process is most often of the instrumental type, which is carried out for reasons of social acceptance (by peer groups, role models, and/or reference groups) or as a strategy for winning, which has been legitimized by the sanctioning bodies involved. These sanctioning bodies are the perpetuators of laws, rules, mores, and values governing such behavior. The main problem with regard to legitimized violence and instrumental violence is the fact that both lead to illegitimate violence all too often. Further, over time there is a general increase in both amount and intensity of legitimized and instrumental violence. This problem is seen to be resultant of societal disorganization, or a breakdown in the effectiveness of the sanctioning bodies' control mechanisms.

Papers on this general subject appear to be in close agreement with regard to the dynamics of the socialization process. Of considerable note are the papers by Vaz on cultural aspects of socialization,[22] by Gary Smith on social disorganization,[25] by Mike Smith on role theory as well as parental, peer, and coaches' sanctions of assaultive behavior,[11 23 24] and by Scott[1] and Layman,[2] which appeared, as indicated earlier, to give the initial impetus to the flurry of research and commentaries that followed.

Because of the overwhelming importance of the socialization issue, however, we cannot leave the topic with just an encapsuled statement. Following are examples drawn from the literature that deal with three of the most pervasive aspects of the socialization issue: (1) sanctions, (2) modeling, and (3) social disorganization. It is important to note that most proponents of the socialization theory on aggression reject the notion that violence is innate.

Mike Smith, in a convincing presentation of a role approach to sport violence, concludes that "sports are seen as social systems consisting of, in part, values, which legitimize aggression, norms which provide rules for the conduct of aggression, and mechanisms by which individuals are mobilized into aggressive roles" (p. 25).[24] The mechanisms that Smith speaks of involve the socialization process. Reference groups (specifically normative groups, comparative groups, and audience groups) serve to articulate the athlete with the appropriate mechanisms of socialization. Smith notes a paradox that exists in hockey and that speaks to the three issues noted earlier. He writes: "official norms are violated with impunity even though official negative sanctions [time in the penalty box] are attached, while unofficial, but apparently more obligatory, aggressive norms are conformed to rather closely" (p. 23).[24] The norms to which the athletes conform involve role expectations provided by both the normative group and the comparison group. The comparison group's function in this instance involves modeling behavior, as is seen in the modeling of an esteemed superstar or even the athlete's conjured up idea of what an aggressive player is like. That there are situations in which advantages can be obtained although penalties are awarded is a commentary on the extent of disorganization becoming prevalent in sport.

According to Gary Smith, "sport is a form of social organization, as opposed to the societal disorganization that is shown to breed violence. Because it is a form of social control, sport has the power to eradicate violence." Gary Smith goes on to say that while football is inherently violent, little violence is seen as a result of organizational rules being imposed. This is not the case with ice hockey, which is not inherently violent and yet is riddled with violent fighting. Smith concludes that the major reason for this is that the fans like the fighting and would likely stay away if it were stopped.[25] From a personal perspective, while there appears to be sanctions operative in hockey that tend to legitimize overt violence, similar sanctions are operative in football, although on a more subdued plane. There is probably little difference between the blood-lust of hockey versus football fans—the difference appears to be quantitative as opposed to qualitative. Possibly this condition is a result of the hockey organizers' desire to increase gate receipts, not a result of the level of organization that exists in the respective sports.

Be that as it may, Scott observes that social disorganization is a cause of much of the violence in the world in general. He notes that the transience of lower- and middle-class societies contributes to this as does the fact that most criminals are between the ages of 18 and 25—the period during which the young adult begins on his own. He further notes that this is also the age where most athletes are actively competing in their respective sports.[1] It may be, then,

that the athletes themselves, not the organizers of sport, are to blame for much of the violence. It is clear, regardless of where one points a finger, that relentless adherence to organizational rules and changing rules to reduce the strategy factor of gaining advantages by breaking them are the procedures that must be adopted if the social-disorganization hypothesis is to be discounted as a precipitating factor in sport violence.

One other aspect of disorganization needs to be mentioned. Hatfield notes that social disorganization can exist on a team level as well as on the sport or league level. He notes that team disorganization results from a lack of cohesiveness or an inability to cope with various ambiguities inherent in team sport situations. The result of such disorganization appears to be at least similar to that which can be expected from league or sport disorganization—frustration occurs. Also, disorganization appears to foster the tendency on the part of the athletes affected by it to get away with anything they can get away with in order to enhance their team's status, often irrespective of sanctions.[15]

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DEVELOPMENTS IN THE SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF COMPETITION

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The predominant approach to sports competition in American society is the *zero-sum* approach: one wins, one loses, and we always have a zero value. The major distinction of how one defines competition is often determined by how one defines success. If winning is the only means of evaluation, then all competition is thought to be zero-sum. It seems that in our society the winner always receives more reinforcement or rewards for his behavior than do other contestants. We tend to reinforce direct competition (i.e., people or teams struggling against each other in a clearly personal context, interindividual competition) much more than indirect competition (i.e., competition against one's own best previous performance or a standard, intra-individual competition). The predominant coaching model in intercollegiate athletics is one that tends to emphasize motivating athletes toward excellence but only when excellence and winning are synonymous. We may then ask whether sport conducted in this manner is being used to demonstrate superiority, not excellence. Winning then becomes the main value.

In a recent interview, star relief pitcher Mike Marshall of the Los Angeles Dodgers indicated that " if he throws a pitch according to the knowledge then in his possession, and gets it exactly where he wants it with good stuff on the ball, the batter might hit it over the fence and beat him. Nevertheless, he would be satisfied with his own performance. "[1]

Now, it is the conviction of this writer that such a statement has direct implications for the social psychology of sports competition. We have an example in which a professional athlete (a highly skilled one, I might add) has nicely articulated a specific sport experience where he allows for a more liberal interpretation of success. It would seem to me that many sociologists would acknowledge the above description by Marshall as a good example of a *non-zero-sum* approach to sports competition, which allows for a varying degree of partially winning and partially losing. In other words, pitcher Marshall accomplished exactly what he had wanted to do with the ball at that moment, and even though the end result (a home run) allowed a run to score against him and his team, he does indeed consider this a successful experience in sport.

This anecdote seems to articulate clearly that although the majority of situations in our American competitive sports ethic seem to be regarded as zero-sum in nature, there are classic examples where it is possible to demonstrate the non-zero-sum approach. I am not insinuating that this approach should always take precedence over the zero-sum approach, but I want to make the point that there are possible alternatives to winning in judging success in sport. This is also another way of stating that non-zero-sum approaches to sports competition are being articulated more today than ever before.

A second example from the sports media illustrates another specific research construct that has received considerable attention in the social psychology of sports competition. The fullback of the Oakland Raiders was speculating on why they lost their playoff game to the Pittsburgh Steelers, thus eliminating their chances to play in the Super Bowl: "'Sometimes you play games to win and sometimes you play them not to lose. . . . I think we played not to lose and so we weren't playing to win. And we didn't win.'"[9]

The quote seems to illustrate very clearly the possible implications we can see in recent work in the achievement-motivation field. There is research work there that implies that man enters potential achievement settings with one of two possible tendencies: the tendency to achieve success or the tendency to avoid failure. Although both are competing tendencies, the stronger tendency will usually prevail. For example, achievement-motivation theory and research have indicated that high-need achievers have a strong motive to achieve success. Likewise, low-need achievers have a strong motive to avoid failure. Of course, in professional athletics, where we deal with athletes who are highly skilled and who come from strong success backgrounds, one expects such athletes to enter with the motive to achieve success the stronger tendency. However, it is interesting to note that in the view of fullback Marv Hubbard, the team might well have entered this particular game with the tendency to avoid failure stronger than the motive to succeed.

In the past two years, achievement motivation has aroused much interest and scholarly work in the social psychology of competition. It is not my intent to examine the findings and theory but, rather, to identify the significance of the pursuits in this domain. The writer recommends to the reader the works by Atkinson,[1] Heckhausen,[7] Maehr,[10] Ryan,[14] Martens,[12] and Scanlon[16] for a more thorough view of the literature.

Another area that might well be considered in the domain of social psychology and competition is aggression and sport. Major papers by J.P. Scott[17] and Leonard Berkowitz[3] have certainly helped bring this area into greater perspective and interest for our field. I have found the work by Bandura[2] to be a most useful source in looking at aggression literature. Of course, we do have specific individuals in our field who have also contributed greatly to the area of

aggression and sport (specifically, some of Mike Smith's work, Burris Husman's review, and some studies from the University of Maryland). Again, this is another area of interest in the social psychological domain that is now receiving scholarly research not only in looking at participant or player aggression in various situational sport settings but also in looking more thoroughly at spectator aggression in such settings.

Rainer Martens[11] has been one of the few individuals in our field to take on the very difficult task of developing a theoretical approach to looking at competition in the sport setting. Martens's work is greatly influenced by social evaluation theory, which is an important ingredient in his basic definition of competition. His work in this area is influenced by Festinger,[5] Robert White,[20] and achievement-motivation theory. Martens's work deals with specific types of competitive settings, mostly interindividual competition. Martens proposes four stages in the competition process: the objective competitive situation, the subjective competitive situation, the response, and the consequences.[12] In the difficult task of attempting to look at competition from a more theoretical approach, Martens's work certainly makes a most worthwhile contribution.

I want to note the significance of intercollegiate athletics in reference to the social psychology of competition in this country because this type of competition receives widespread media coverage and seems to be at a critical period in our history: "'It's a very difficult thing to describe pressure. Much of it is self-inflicted pressure you bring upon yourself, demands you bring upon yourself. I resigned because of a combination of things, the sum total of 24 years as a head coach. . . . I made the decision with my head. If I had made it with my heart, I probably wouldn't have made this decision.'"[21]

The resignation statements of Ara Parseghian demonstrate current problems in big-time football and basketball coaching. Why do coaches continue to work under such pressures? Why doesn't this insane approach to intercollegiate sports stop? Where will it all lead us? Unfortunately, too many people in powerful administrative positions in the intercollegiate athletic movement in this country today are making decisions with their hearts and not their heads. If ever we needed drastic change in terms of bringing intercollegiate athletics into the mainstream of educational thought, it certainly is now. The recent pilot study by the Carnegie Foundation under George Hanford implies that the college presidents and boards of trustees in this country continue to show a "benign neglect" in regard to the problems in this area. I feel Hanford is more than kind in this section of this report. College presidents and boards of trustees simply refuse to deal with the major issues; therefore, they don't even attempt to recognize (at least not publicly) that major problems do exist. It seems to me that the neglect is definitely more malignant than benign. God help the women if they insist on following the dominant role models available to them from our current programs.

I think the best way I can end this particular discussion as it relates to intercollegiate athletics, is to present a quotation from Thoreau:

> Why should we be in such desperate haste to succeed, and in such desperate enterprises? If a man does not keep pace with his companions, perhaps it is because he hears a different drummer. Let him step to the music which he hears, however measured or far away.

In my opinion, we could definitely use some new role models and different drummers in the area of intercollegiate athletics today.

I have taken recent statements one can find almost daily in the sports media in this country and then tried to show how such statements illustrate certain areas of scholarly interest and concern in the social psychology of sports competition. It will now be my intent to relate some thoughts on what the future developments in social psychology of competition might provide.

It seems quite safe to state there is definitely a need for more longitudinal approaches to investigate fully the effect of sports competition, not only on the participants involved but on society as a whole. There has been too much assumed in our profession based on opinion (from both the establishment and counter-culture people) and on selective experimental studies that seem questionable in predicting long-range effects. Longitudinal work seems to be one of the most efficient means to examine the effect of such programs on the people involved. With Berkowitz,[3] I think that more efficient and more situationally specific means of measurement are needed in competition and sport areas. More specific measurement tools related to different competitive sport situations in various sport settings (i.e., approaches from zero-sum, non-zero-sum, direct and indirect) might well be better suited to supply the profession with more pertinent information.

In many ways, we might be better off in studying competition (or competitiveness) by developing our own personality instruments to measure factors dealing with the kind of settings we are talking about. Although the projective techniques in gathering data may have more potential than we currently attribute to such devices, we need to develop tools that are situationally specific to the sport competitive setting being measured.

Of course, we are all aware from personality research of the difficulty in projective measurement techniques. We do know that such techniques require professional people who possess clinical backgrounds and qualifications to interpret such data. Bouet has attempted to develop such techniques.[4] The University of Maryland has also produced work in this regard, using such devices as the standard TAT, Rorschach, and H-T-P measures. We do recognize the difficulty in such testing, but that doesn't mean the profession should not at least attempt to develop measurement tools (both projective and profile). In my opinion, we (as a profession) should be seeking substantial grant money for developing some sound pilot programs to look at competition in the sporting society from a more longitudinal approach using our own tools. I have complete confidence that we could muster the very qualified minds in our own profession to take on such a venture.

It seems conceivable that such a project might, therefore, bring forth data at least to recommend possible alternatives in sporting situations offered in this country. If there is anything we desperately need in our field today, it is more diverse viewpoints of sports competition in action programs. I am not talking about lip service, which our profession (as many professions) can certainly be accused of, but I mean on-going, viable, action programs on the part of the profession. This doesn't mean to imply that what we are currently doing in the area of competition is entirely wrong; for that matter it may even be right in many aspects. However, it does mean to imply that we do need more reliable data to justify what we are doing.

If the traditional approach to competitive sport (zero-sum) is developing behavioral objectives that seem undesirable (i.e., creating extreme amounts of aggression, tension, and stress in participants, developing exaggerated authoritarian traits, etc.), then we need data to suggest possible competitive alternatives that will help alleviate such problems. As Walsh has stated previously and

as Hendry's research seems to indicate, we are on a very fine line in many areas of our field in continuing to create what can be termed a closed-shop or isolationist viewpoint, and our approach to sports competition seems to be limited in offering alternatives.[15] This would be an especially fruitful area to examine in this regard.

New role models are recommended in terms of offering alternatives to competitive sports in our society. I seriously doubt that initiating action on the part of major college football coaches to take lie detector tests is the ultimate answer to intercollegiate athletic problems. President Ford's recent statement, "In athletics and in most other worthwhile pursuits, first place is the manifestation of the desire to excel, and how else can you achieve anything?"[8] might also be questioned as to its value in solving our problems in this area. We now seem to lack enough diversity and viable action alternatives in our programs dealing with competition and sport. The zero-sum approach to competition seems to be the traditional and only approach available to participants in American society today.

It may be interesting to note that the Canadian Council, which encourages the arts, literature, social sciences, and the like, has made funds available for an unusual hockey project in Windsor, Ontario. According to Dr. James Duthie of the University of Windsor Sports Institute for Research, "the sport is being returned to the children by taking the competitive aspect out of it." No points are awarded for winning or losing, no goals are counted, and there are no records for leading scorers. There are 28 teams in the noncompetitive league, and observers are trying to investigate such areas as frustration, anxiety, and aggression.[16] Role models in terms of different approaches to sport that might well employ a non-zero-sum approach or something that at least allows a redefinition (or more liberal interpretation) of what success is in competitive sport seems to be in order.

So I would speculate that one way we are going to study competition conclusively, especially sports competition, is through the process of observing actual behavior of people not only in sports generally but in specific sport situations. I would speculate further that we will study situations where there is evidence of direct competitive settings (i.e., interpersonal struggles, interteam struggles), where there is evidence of indirect competition (i.e., intra-individual struggles against prior performances, nature, or standards), and where there are zero-sum approaches and non-zero-sum approaches. I believe that such observations have to be made and must deal with specific sporting situations (i.e., a variety of contact, noncontact, team, individual, nature-oriented, and risk-taking sports). I think that such investigative procedures could contribute a great deal to the study of competition in the sporting setting. More specific measurement techniques (as I have previously attempted to illustrate) related more precisely to looking at sports competition in zero-sum, non-zero-sum, and direct and indirect situations must be used to gather more meaningful data. The 16 Pf, CPI, Eysenck, Edwards, OPI, and other measures have certainly supplied us with some useful information. However, we must recognize the limitations, and we do need our own measures that can account for the specific situational settings in sports competition today.

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SOCIALIZATION OF COACHES: ANTECEDENTS TO COACHES' BELIEFS AND BEHAVIORS

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The behavior of American athletic coaches has come under an avalanche of criticism in recent years. By and large the critics have focused their attacks on the personality traits and value orientations of coaches.[1,2,3] Coaches have been accused of being authoritarian, dogmatic, insensitive, extremely conservative in value orientation, and demanding obedience to arbitrary and inflexible rules.

The personality-trait approach has found congenial reception among sports psychologists because of their interest in individual characteristics. One major problem with this approach is that the coaches are treated as though their background of social experiences was unimportant. There is a suggestion either that in some mysterious way persons with certain personal-social characteristics are attracted to coaching or that the occupation develops persons with a specific set of personal-social attitudes, values, and behaviors. Exactly which of the two processes is operative is never specified. In this regard, Edwards notes, "Information available in the literature is inconclusive as to whether the demands of the coaching role operate selectively to weed out non-authoritarian type personalities, or whether experiences while training to become a coach or while fulfilling the coaching role condition people to react in an inflexible manner."[4] What is overlooked in this view of coaches' beliefs and behaviors is the actual realities of the social milieu that has been part of their lives since birth—their social-class background, social activities in youth, and the occupation itself in which they work.

The position of this paper is that coaches' personal-social characteristics are a product of the lifelong socialization they have undergone. *Socialization* is the process by which an individual learns attitudes, values, behaviors, and expectations of others to enable him to assume particular roles in society effectively. The foundation of cultural beliefs, behaviors, and expectations is laid in childhood and adolescence, but socialization is a continuous process throughout the life cycle, since the individual is constantly taking on new roles. In the course of the various social experiences, the socializee develops a set of personal-social characteristics that tend to conform to those who have been significant others in his life, and his beliefs and behaviors tend to conform to the expectations of the socializers.

Socialization is managed in a variety of formal and informal ways. Formal socialization takes place primarily through the family, school, and church during childhood and adolescence and through the occupation in adulthood. Informal socialization agents and agencies are more diverse, but relatives, peers, and role models constitute significant others inducing normative compliance and, typically, an actual sharing of beliefs and behaviors.

The present task is to examine from a sociological perspective the antecedent to coaches' personal-social characteristics. This is in contrast to the usual psychological explanation of coaches' behavior. The underlying theoretical orientation for this perspective is that the social milieu in which an individual has lived is highly associated with his present beliefs and behavior. Three aspects of socialization will be examined: family background, social experiences in youth, and occupation. It will be suggested that the socialization experiences in these

settings lead to predictions about beliefs, behaviors, and value orientations of coaches. Empirical studies will then be reviewed to ascertain the relationships between the predictions generated and the research findings.

CHILD-REARING PRACTICES AND CONSEQUENCES

The primary role that parents play in the socialization of their children is emphasized in all socialization theories. There is a wealth of research in the psychology and sociology literature that suggests that parental attitudes, values, and behavioral patterns are likely to be transmitted from one generation to another via their offspring through the socialization processes of family living. As Barber says, "Society tends to reproduce itself by the . . . expression of its norms and aspirations through actions of the parents who socialize the young and thus make new adult members of society."[5]

If we assume that many of the foundations of adult personality, beliefs, and values are laid in the experiences of childhood and adolescence, greater understanding of the differences in attitudes, values, and behaviors of adults from different classes might come from knowing something about the differences and similarities in their youth. Children grow up in different social and economic circumstances and in families of varying role structure, and it is clear that the socialization of children in American society is markedly influenced by their parents' position in the social-class structure.[6]

It has been repeatedly found that parents from the various social classes differ in their child-rearing practices.[7,8,9] Bronfenbrenner reports that "in matters of discipline, working-class parents are consistently more likely to employ physical punishment, while middle-class families rely on reasoning, isolation, and appeals to guilt" in raising children.[10] Maccoby and Gibbs found that upper lower-class parents employ physical punishment, deprivation of privileges, and ridicule as techniques of controlling their children more commonly than do upper middle-class parents.[11] Elder notes that physical discipline, such as spanking and slapping, is used more frequently by lower-class parents.[12] Finally, McKinley reports that lower-class parents are more rigid in their relationships with children, resulting in higher frequency of punishment.[13]

In conceptualizing the child-rearing practices of lower-class parents, the word *authoritarian* is frequently employed.[14] Indeed, several researchers have indicated that lower-class parents have a strong authoritarian orientation. Lipset claims, "Many studies . . . show a consistent association between authoritarianism and lower class status."[15] McKinnon and Centers note, "The working class contains a higher percentage of authoritarians than either the middle class or the upper class."[16] The authoritarian is characteristically punitive and condescending toward inferiors, less sensitive to interpersonal relationships, submissive toward authority, admiring of power and toughness, and rigidly conventional and possesses a general insensitivity to the needs and motivations of others.[17]

The choice of any particular ideological system and social-behavioral orientation emerges out of extremely complex and multiple causes, but parents and their offspring typically obtain positively correlated scores on most measures of individual differences. Again and again, research findings show that socioeconomic status is highly associated with certain personal dispositions of adults and that these personal-social characteristics are transmitted to their offspring through the child-rearing practices. Both evidence and theory suggest

that given the tendency of lower-class parents to treat their children in more authoritarian ways, persons from lower-class backgrounds will exhibit and endorse authoritarian perspectives.

Let us examine briefly the social-class background of athletic coaches. Several studies over the past fifty years have shown that public school teachers tend to come from rural and working-class families.[18] It is likely that public school coaches are drawn from the same social-class pool. Loy and Sage report that a majority of collegiate football and basketball coaches are from working-class families. They say, " . . . the majority of fathers worked at manual jobs."[19]

Given the tendency of lower-class parents to treat their children in authoritarian ways, given the fact that parents and offspring typically obtain positively correlated scores on most measures of individual differences, and given the fact that coaches tend to come from working-class social origins, our first prediction is that as a group coaches will exhibit and endorse authoritarian perspectives in their personal attitudes and behaviors.

PARENTAL VALUES AND CONSEQUENCES

Few studies have focused directly upon the relationship of social class to parental values, but those concerned with this topic are generally in agreement.[20] [21] [22] [23] [24] These studies suggest that working-class parents value obedience, neatness, cleanliness, and conformity to external proscriptions to a larger extent than middle-class parents, who value self-control and self-direction more highly. Pearlin and Kohn note: "Middle-class parents value self-direction more highly than do working class parents; working class parents emphasize, instead, conformity to external proscription. Self-control is the pivotal parental value for the middle-class; obedience for the working class."[25]

In addition to parental values emphasizing obedience and respectability among lower classes, parents in this social stratum display values supporting authoritarian conservatism. Several studies show that authoritarian conservatism is related to social class.[26] Kohn and Schooler report:

> Class position is linearly related to . . . social orientation. The strongest correlation by a wide margin, is with authoritarian conservatism: the lower the men's social class position, the more rigidly conservative their view of man and his social institutions and the less their tolerance of non-conformity. . . . The lower the men's social class position, the more likely they are to feel that morality is synonymous with obeying the letter of the law; the less trustful of their fellow man they are; and the more resistent [*sic*] they are to innovation and change.[27]

Socialization theories consistently suggest that parental values are transmitted to their offspring and are then internalized to be retransmitted to their own offspring and others with whom they interact. Given the value orientations prominent among working-class parents and assuming that they transmit these values to their offspring, it follows that persons who grew up in the working-class family will themselves tend to possess values stressing political and social conservatism and will show strong support for obedience to authority. Thus, our second prediction is that athletic coaches, as a group, will display and endorse an authoritarian conservative value orientation.

SPORTS PARTICIPATION AND CONSEQUENCES

An enormous amount of the social experiences of youth takes place outside the family, and for youth who participate in organized athletics the social environment has the potential to serve as a powerful source of socialization. Snyder has suggested that the greatest likelihood of the inculcation of diffuse attitudes and values occurs when there is a high degree of involvement in an activity, when the activity is done voluntarily, when there is an expressive relationship among participants, and when the socializing agent is prestigeful and powerful and has great ability to dispense affective rewards and punishment.[28] It is obvious that all of these factors are present in the athletic setting, and therefore athletic experiences undoubtedly serve as an important source of socialization of attitudes and values for participants.

What are the core attitudes and values of athletics? Assuming some variation from team to team due to the variation in participants and coaches, there is nevertheless what Harry Edwards calls a "sports creed."[29] In essence, the sports creed emphasizes competitiveness, obedience to authority, patriotism, loyalty to the group, altruism, self-discipline, and religiosity. Typically, these precepts are forcefully transmitted to the athletes by their coaches and teammates in a variety of ways. In an elegantly conceived study, Snyder shows quite nicely how locker room slogans are used as a means of socializing athletes to the attitudes and values of the sports creed.[30]

To the extent that one has participated in organized sports and to the extent that one has been exposed to the sports creed, there is a good chance that one will evidence attitudes and values endorsing and supporting the creed. Most current coaches were active participants in interschool and/or age-group sports programs in their youth.[31] [32] [33] [34] [35] Thus, they had ample exposure to the sports creed. Therefore, our third prediction is that coaches, as a group, will evidence strong support for the precepts of the sports creed, especially such values as obedience to authority and conformity to externally imposed proscriptions, which are core values in the creed.

OCCUPATIONAL SOCIALIZATION AND CONSEQUENCES

Most research into the process of socialization has been concerned with infancy, childhood, and adolescence, but there is a considerable amount of socialization involved in learning and performing occupational roles.[36] According to Moore, occupational "socialization involves acquiring the requisite knowledge and skills and also the sense of occupational identity and internalization of occupational norms typical of the fully qualified practitioner."[37] It is clear that for an individual to function in an occupation he must learn a variety of behaviors, attitudes, and values. Numerous studies have demonstrated that occupational affiliation or position in a work organization profoundly affects one's views on various matters as well as one's actual behavior.

An occupational ideology emerges and is sustained through both formal and informal channels of communication, and the person who learns the norms, values, and behaviors will emerge not only with an internalized occupational commitment but also with an identification with the collectivity, the brotherhood. Thus, the main consequence of the various occupational socializing agents and agencies is that there is a relative homogeneity in the employee group—all persons having behaviors and beliefs compatible with the demands of the occupation. As Burlingame says, "[. . . the intent of socialization is

to obviate personalistic, idiosyncratic difference in Freshmen (persons new to the occupation) and replace them in the universalistic, norm-governed behaviors of seniors."[38] Also, Goode notes: "Characteristic of each of the established professions, and a goal of each aspiring occupation, is the community of profession. Each profession is a community without locus [but it] . . . may nevertheless be called a community by virtue of these characteristics. . . . Its members share values in common."[39]

The sports creed described above provides a basic underlying philosophy in the coaching profession. Coaching manuals, clinic speakers, and nationally prominent coaches consistently propagate this creed. Its precepts are advanced so regularly and so persuasively and it is so universally endorsed in American sports that it would be almost impossible for a coach not to subscribe to its dictates and accept them as his own.

On the basis of socialization theory and research about an occupational homogeneity of beliefs and behaviors, our fourth prediction is that athletic coaches, as a group, will exhibit common value orientations. Since coaches are indoctrinated to the sports creed through various agents and agencies within and external to the coaching occupation, our fifth prediction is that they will endorse the creed and strongly subscribe to values of obedience to authority and conformity to external proscriptions.

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE FOR PREDICTIONS

To what extent are the predictions generated through a review of the socialization literature sustained by empirical findings? The first thing that becomes quite evident when seeking an answer to this question is that research on the personal-social characteristics of coaches is quite scarce. The presently available data cannot give definitive verification for the predictions, but there are sufficient studies to suggest that they tend to be fairly accurate.

With respect to the prediction that coaches endorse authoritarian perspectives and support high authority structure the findings are incomplete but do suggest support for the proposition. Locke found that a physical education group scored significantly higher on an instrument that measured authoritarian attitudes than did a teacher group who were not physical educators.[40] Although not all physical educators are athletic coaches, a very high percentage of them are. Kenyon, who assessed several psychosocial and cultural characteristics of aspiring physical educators, reports that the physical education majors were more dogmatic and rigid than other prospective teachers.[41] Again, physical education and coaching are not synonymous, but most aspiring coaches major in physical education and most coaches majored in physical education.[42] [43]

Ogilvie and Tutko describe the personalities of 64 coaches representing basketball, track, football, and baseball as being quite different in two traits: "The first was the very low tendency to be interested in the dependency needs of others . . . in other words, to give a great deal of emotional support to others. . . . The second characteristic . . . was . . . inflexibility or rigidity in terms of utilization of new learning."[44] In a second study of high school coaches, Ogilvie and Tutko suggest that support was found for their previous generalization, that is, that coaches are high in those traits that promote getting ahead and succeeding and that do not require personal involvement, but they score low on those personality traits that contribute most to being sensitive and support close interpersonal relationships.[45] Albaugh assessed ressentiment of college basketball coaches. One high in ressentiment demands obedience, denies

individual rights, demands that inflexible rules be kept, and commands docile, conforming, and spiritless individuals as subjects. He reported that the coaches' mean score was approximately one standard deviation higher than the teachers'.[46]

Scott, one of the most outspoken critics of athletic coaches, has suggested that the value orientations of coaches are so conservative as to be almost aberrant.[47] [48] Ogilvie, another frequent critic of athletic coaches, also believes that coaches are conservative in value orientation: "Traditionally you are going to find in the coaching profession men who are socially and politically conservative."[49] Even some coaches view their colleagues as possessing extremely conservative values. David Nelson, athletic director at the University of Delaware and formerly the head football coach there, says, "Having been a coach . . . I know that most of us are almost Harding Republicans and three degrees to the right of Ghengis Khan."[50] Unfortunately, there is little research to support these impressionistic observations about coaches, but what does exist tends to support these notions.

Sage assessed the value orientations of collegiate football, basketball, and track coaches and found that the three groups hold similar value orientations.[51] Indeed, on twenty items of various dimensions of value difference there were no significant differences on any of these items. In other words, collegiate athletic coaches from several sports hold similar value orientations for a variety of familiar dimensions of value difference, and there was no difference between the values of younger coaches (age 40 and under) and older coaches (over age 40).

With respect to the charge that coaches are conservative, only two studies relate to this question. In a 1969 survey by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education of the political opinions of over 60,000 full-time college faculty members, physical education faculty (N=1,208) ranked second out of thirty fields in percentage of respondents who characterize themselves as strongly conservative and also second in percentage of those who characterize themselves as moderately conservative. In apparently the only study specifically concerned with the comprehensive value orientations of coaches, Sage summarizes his findings for collegiate coaches in this way: "The total response profile of the coaches showed them to possess moderate-conservative values. . . . Although conservatism is not extreme among coaches, it is more pronounced than it is among college students."

Sage also reports that coaches manifest greater support for "authority structure,"[52] that is, they place high value on obedience to authority and standards of good conduct established by religious or societal norms: "This high value for authority structure expressed by coaches will be evident in expectancies that their position culturally accords them the right to direct the actions of their athletes and that the athletes under their jurisdiction agree to accept as the premises of their behavior orders and instructions given to them by the coach."[53]

On the whole, of course, the evidence presented here does not constitute a definitive verification for the predictions, nor does it permit a comprehensive assessment of all of the alternative explanations for accounting for the relationship between socialization experiences and various kinds of coaches' attitudes, values, and behaviors. It is hoped, however, that this effort will help make the issue of what accounts for the relationship more salient than previously published literature on this topic.

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STUDENT LEISURE-TIME USE AND SPORTS SPECTATOR BEHAVIOR PATTERNS AT URBAN COMMUTER UNIVERSITIES

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This paper presents selected data from the two leisure studies conducted at the University of Minnesota and Temple University, Philadelphia. The Minnesota study was conducted in 1971, and the Temple study, a slightly modified replication of the Minnesota study, was conducted in 1974. Both studies were conducted in the spring (March-April) of their respective years.

Students' self-reported patterns of leisure-time dispersal and use for weekdays and weekends are reported. Further, secondary and tertiary patterns of sport involvement, reasons for attending sports events, and opinions giving the rank ordering of factors affecting game attendance reflecting student sports spectator behavior and opinion are reported.

Several papers and articles have been presented based on the Minnesota study.[1,2,3,4,5,6] One study has reported findings from the Temple study.[7] The present paper is the first to make comparisons between the Minnesota findings and the Temple results. The comparisons are of selected parts of the questionnaire; yet this selection does not reflect a systematic search for high correlation. Both the University of Minnesota and Temple University in Philadelphia are urban commuter universities. It is possible that the urban commuter student is a particular breed, regardless of which large city he inhabits, or, more likely, commuting forces upon the student an overall pattern of life that not only establishes dispersal of leisure time but may have overriding behavioral effects that affect values, attitudes, and other judgmental behavior.

SAMPLE COMPARISONS

For the Minnesota study conducted in the spring of 1971, the questionnaire was mailed out to a random sample of 1,000 of the 32,936 registered undergraduates, constituting approximately 3 percent of the total enrollment.[8] A very slightly modified version of the questionnaire was mailed out to a randomly se-

lected sample of 540 of the 12,322 registered undergraduates attending Temple in the spring of 1974: the Temple sample was approximately 4.5 percent of the total undergraduate enrollment. Table 1 gives the descriptive data for comparisons of the samples, the rates of response, and the total populations, showing sample and response breakdowns by sex. It is generally agreed that a 70 percent response rate for survey returns gives justification for results to be generalized to the total population.

TABLE 1

Comparisons of Samples, Respondents, and Total Undergraduate Populations by Sex and by University

	Male		*Female*		*Totals*	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Minnesota (1971)						
All undergraduates	19,291	58.4	13,645	41.6	32,936	100.0
Leisure study sample	578	57.8	422	42.2	1,000	100.0
Leisure study response group	453	57.9	329	42.1	782	78.2
Temple (1974)						
All undergraduates	6,793	55.1	5,529	44.9	12,322	100.0
Leisure study sample	266	49.3	274	50.7	540	100.0
Leisure study response group	198	47.3	209	52.7	407	75.4

RESULTS

Leisure Time

Student self-reports of leisure-time dispersal for both the Minnesota and the Temple samples appear to lend support to the contention that the urban commuter student is a particular type of person regardless of which large city he inhabits. Perhaps the most significant figure in Table 2 is the claim made that approximately 40 percent of commuting students have little time for leisure. The commuting student most probably pays his own costs for transit, and to offset these costs (among others) he most probably holds down at least a part-time job. The question of whether the typical student should have a good amount (average?) of time for leisure is discussed in texts on the philosophy of education and is not entered here, but the significance is somewhat embellished by the data presented in Table 3.

TABLE 2

Amount of Leisure-Time Dispersal for Student Populations by University (in Percent)

Amount of Leisure	*Minnesota*	*Temple*
Much	9.0	8.0
Average	52.6	50.5
Little	38.4	41.5

TABLE 3

Patterns of Leisure-Time Use for Weekdays and Weekends by University (in Percent)

	Minnesota		*Temple*	
	Weekdays	Weekends	Weekdays	Weekends
Stay on campus after class	15.9	15.2	19.4	8.0
Come back to campus evenings	8.1	—	1.3	—
Stay at home	66.9	31.1	56.2	28.2
Go out locally	34.3	68.9	40.9	69.7
Go downtown	7.5	19.8	10.1	22.8
Travel away for weekend	—	24.9	—	21.0
Other	14.1	15.9	18.7	16.8

As Table 3 shows, in spite of the commuting done during the week, nearly a quarter of each sample of students claimed they like to travel away for the weekend. Clearly the two kinds of travel are neither confused nor related, and commuting for some students cannot be too demanding from a "traveling" standpoint. Weekday evening leisure and cultural events do not attract many students: summing items "Stay on campus after class" and "Come back to campus evenings" shows that at best 25 percent (for Minnesota) and 20 percent (for Temple) of commuting students can be expected to support such events. This percentage must be qualified a little because both campuses do have students who are noncommuters. The stay-at-home student group might be larger than expected, but this figure also reflects the demanding nature of the life of a typical commuting student.

Sports Spectating

On average, 30 percent of students claimed that spectating is their primary interest in sport; another 37 percent claimed that their interest in sport is divided equally between spectating and participating; another 27 percent claimed participation as their primary interest; and yet another 6 percent claimed no interest in sport whatsoever. These figures are composite percentages taken as the average of the two samples, neither group's percentage being widely disparate from the other.

TABLE 4

Frequency of Sport Spectator Behavior for Game Attendance and Media by University (in Percent)

	Frequently		*Occasionally*		*Never*	
	Minnesota	*Temple*	*Minnesota*	*Temple*	*Minnesota*	*Temple*
Attend games	19.8	11.1	51.0	50.7	29.2	38.2
Watch TV*	29.5	31.7	50.1	45.0	20.4	23.3
TV (sports)*	29.0	31.2	41.7	38.4	26.3	30.4
Listen to radio	18.5	14.0	41.5	28.6	40.0	57.4
Read sports magazine	11.1	8.7	38.3	29.8	50.6	61.5

* The questionnaire design had two disparate sections entitled "Sports (Spectator)" and "Television" respectively. Item 2 under "Sports (Spectator)" was "Watch TV"; item 2 under "Television" was "sports." These items were inserted as a cross-check for response validation.

Sports-spectating behavior, including attendance at games and television viewing, is summarized in Table 4. As a cross-check for validation of responses to the questionnaire, watching sports on television was built into two parts of the questionnaire (see note, Table 4). There is a particularly high correlation of response for each of the groups among those who watch sports on television frequently, and the correlation becomes slightly weaker for those who watch occasionally or who never watch sports on television. Perhaps the most surprising figure, considering the amount of time and publicity that television gives to sports, is that some 20 percent (or more) never watch sports on television. The figures for game attendance (Minnesota 19.8 percent and 51.0 percent; Temple 11.1 percent and 50.7 percent) must be taken with some reservation, for it is well known that game attendance fluctuates with the team record and the popularity of the sport.

TABLE 5

Reasons for Attending Games by University (in Percent)

	Minnesota	*Temple*
Crowd contact	10.6	22.0
Shared social experience (friend/date)	43.1	43.3
Entertainment/enjoyment	65.4	59.6
Beauty (esthetics) of movement	14.7	26.2
Emotional release, excitement	27.4	40.2
See aggressive behavior*	—	11.9
Identify with players*	—	16.3
Pass the time*	—	13.7

* Added to the questionnaire for the Temple study.

In Table 5, data is presented giving the reasons why urban student commuters attend games. The original questionnaire given to the Minnesota sample contained only five alternative reasons for respondents to check. In preparation for the Temple study, the original question dealing with reasons for sports attendance was tested against the findings of Boles.[9] This exercise substantiated the primary five and added three more of apparent significance. The most satisfying result recorded here in Table 5 is reflected in the Temple results, which validate the primary five reasons of the original questionnaire by virtue of the percentage weight of support given. (The three added factors all appear of lesser significance than the primary five reasons; yet future researchers may wish to retain them for their apparent weight.) It is not surprising to find that the outstanding reason for attending a game is for the entertainment that it provides and the enjoyment gained from it.

It was pointed out above that the team record and the popularity of the sport are both factors influencing game attendance. The reader is referred to the article "Factors Affecting Game Attendance"[4] for a full account of the results of the Minnesota study and to "Attendance and Price Setting"[10] for supportive data taken from national sports franchise statistics. Thus, for the results of the Temple study to have differed widely from the Minnesota results would have meant close scrutiny, since they would also differ from national statistics. Table 6 gives the rank order comparisons of primary factors affecting game attendance as reported by students of urban commuter universities. It is tempting to gener-

TABLE 6

Rank Order of Primary Factors Affecting Game Attendance

Rank Order of Factors	*Minnesota*	*Temple*
Popularity of the sport	1.3	1.2
Team's record	1.6	1.5
Presence of superstar(s)	1.8	1.7
Cost of tickets	1.8	1.9
Location of facility	2.0	2.0
Promotion—advertising	2.2	2.1
Values of society	2.1	2.2
Competition for entertainment dollar	2.2	2.2

N.B. Weighting given to a particular factor by respondents was: 1=very important, 2=of some importance, and 3=of little or no importance.

alize from the urban student commuter to the general population at large, based on the strength of support given in these figures, but caution is recommended. Certainly, as far as students are concerned, the popularity of the sport is the most crucial factor for game attendance, and, contrary to the opinion held by directors of athletics, promotional expenses for advertising are of little value. The team record is the better source of advertising, and winning draws the crowds.

CONCLUSIONS

The data presented in this report demonstrate a close correspondence of life-style and opinion between populations of students attending urban commuter universities. Comparisons of data collected from a leisure and sports interest questionnaire administered to students at the University of Minnesota in 1971 and to students at Temple University in 1974 show that, regardless of the location of the large city, students who commute are very similar in the amount of leisure they have and how they spend it. If the use of some of their leisure time is in attendance at sports events, watching sports on television, or otherwise showing an interest in sport, their being urban commuter students is more significant than their living in any particular part of the country. At least for the factors studied here, urban living is not regionally differentiated.

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AIAW-NCAA-PHYSICAL EDUCATION: AN UNHAPPY TRIANGLE?

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When Dr. Pelton invited me to serve as a panelist on this program, I was pleased to accept. I felt that a frank discussion of a topic like this one would certainly be interesting and personally informative with regard to how the other organizations actually feel about the liaison between physical education and intercollegiate athletics and the respective organizations that serve their memberships.

Perhaps an overview of the National Collegiate Athletic Association is in order. The association is composed of over 900 collegiate institutions of varying sizes, philosophies, purposes, and goals, located throughout the United States. Membership is institutional in nature and differs in that respect from membership in this organization, for example, and the AAHPER, where the membership is composed of individuals, not institutions. In a nutshell, the basic function of the NCAA is to formulate the policies and procedures governing intercollegiate athletic competition between its members in such a manner as deemed fair and equitable by the individual members. The NCAA does not exist by any God-given right; it began and continues because of the will of its membership. I am always amused when I sometimes hear members of the athletic profession cuss or discuss the NCAA as if it were a giant corporation with complete autonomy in all matters related to athletics. In reality, when we talk about the NCAA, we are talking about our own collegiate institutions and their individual delegates. Enough of this—I could go on about its organizational patterns, its legislative powers to enact rules and regulations governing competition, and the enforcement procedures it has instituted to enforce these rules, but that in its entirety would take too long, be extremely boring, and add nothing to this program.

My title asks whether the interrelationship of the AAHPER, the NCAA, the NAIA, and the AIAW is on firm or shaky ground. The honest and straightforward answer is that the relationships are strained and close to the breaking point. There are a variety of reasons given by different people—differences in the philosophies of the organizations, in organizational administration, and in membership qualifications—and claims that one or more are power-hungry and want to dictate to all groups involved in amateur athletics. I know you have heard that about the NCAA; I have heard rumors that this would also apply to the AAHPER.

The real question is, Do we permit jurisdictional fights to irreparably damage the relationships between our various organizations? I submit to you that not only must we not allow this to occur but we cannot afford to if we are thinking about the welfare of physical education and athletics.

Without attempting to oversimplify the approach to settling differences and joining hands, I suggest that we put into practice what we have been preaching for some time, namely, that participation in sports is conducive to the development of an appreciation for the values derived from working together as members of a team, not as spoiled, individual stars who think only of themselves, without concern for the well-being of the other members. I am firmly convinced that we are all members of the same team whether we want to be or not and whether at times we act like it. Nevertheless, we all have a common concern—to offer programs of physical activity for our young men and women that will satisfy their needs and interests and allow them to derive benefits that will contribute to a more wholesome way of life. The problems that we face today are very real and demand solutions. The problems of our organizations are really extensions of the problems that exist on our individual campuses. You do not hear anything at the national level that you do not hear first at the local level. So if we want to solve problems at the national level, let each of us first try to solve them at our own local level.

None of the various segments of our profession is free of problems. Let me name just a few problems that come readily to mind. First, there exists today a group in our colleges who would eliminate or refuse credit for the activity courses in physical education on the basis that these are not academically reputable and have no acceptable place in a college curriculum. There are even some in our own profession who feel that it is beneath their dignity or a waste of their talents to be assigned to teach a skills course. I submit that, on the contrary, the teaching of skills is the base of our whole program and that if we deny this, we deny everything that intercollegiate athletics and physical education stand for. If this program can be eliminated at the college level, it can be eliminated at the secondary level (we already have opponents) and subsequently at the lower levels. The people in athletics (intercollegiate and intramural) should lend their full support to the physical education associations for the retention and betterment of existing programs. In this area athletics needs your guidance and can use your leadership, with you being the quarterbacks and our people being the guards who do the blocking. We need to work together to support our programs.

There is a constant problem involving the need for additional facilities; the teacher-training program, the instructional skills program, the intramural and recreation programs, and the intercollegiate athletic programs for men and women all put a heavy strain on existing facilities. The ultimate answer to this problem is not to bicker among ourselves about which group is going to use them and at what time, for how long, and in what order. In attempting to

prove our own need, all we do is tear down the needs of other groups and in so doing defeat the very things we set out to achieve for ourselves. Instead, let's get to work jointly to show cause for new facilities that will alleviate the needs of all groups.

For example. If you do not need more tennis courts at your institution today, you are one of the favored few. The tennis boom has put a tremendous strain on the availability of courts for students and faculty. Add to that the advent of a women's intercollegiate tennis program, and you do not have to be very smart to see that you have a problem. The real question lies in how you go about solving it. If you take the short-sighted approach, you propose cutting available time for each group, thus ultimately providing mediocrity for all groups and allowing the basic problem to remain for everybody. If you really want to solve the problem, you join hands in presenting the needs of each group and combining these needs to show just cause for additional courts that can be used by all groups. We can no longer justify the luxury of varsity courts only, men's courts only, women's courts only, or what-have-you. The important thing is to get more courts or court time (lighting) for people to play tennis, which playing is, in the final analysis, what all of us should be expending our energies toward accomplishing. What can be said about tennis courts can be said about other facilities.

Let us look at a few problems of intercollegiate athletics. You can start with the problem of financing. Contrary to popular belief, there are only a few intercollegiate athletic programs that are self-supporting. Most programs rely on monies other than gate receipts, whether derived directly or indirectly from university-community resources. The cost of operation has risen in the same manner as the cost of living. There are only two approaches to facing up to the problem—either reduce costs by reducing the scope of operation or increase income by acquiring additional funds from either present or new sources. It is as simple as that. The expense budget for a Division I team playing football probably ranges from $1.5 to $2.5 million annually. There are a few that are above or below these figures, but most successful programs fall into that range. Steps, such as limitations of grants-in-aid, have been taken to curtail expenses, but more action can be expected in the near future probably with reductions in the size of traveling and playing squads, number of coaches, and, perhaps, number of intercollegiate sports (I hope this would be a final, desperate step).

It is imperative that we continue to have good intercollegiate athletic programs. The benefits to a university are immeasurable. But if intercollegiate athletics goes down the drain, all other segments of the "team" will get caught in the backwash. Therefore, it becomes a problem not only of intercollegiate athletics but of the total field. Let's treat it as such and work together toward finding a solution for our present dilemma.

I will mention just one more of our joint problems—that of the role and scope of an expanding women's intercollegiate athletic program. The underlying problem is where to obtain funds to finance the proposed activities. I have never heard an athletic director seriously oppose the philosophy supporting a comprehensive program of intercollegiate athletics for women; I have heard many athletic directors express genuine concern about funding, and, in light of the previous problem discussed, you can understand why. I have listened to many speeches by women, and most include a statement that the women do not want to initiate and conduct their program at the expense of a reduction in the men's program, but I have not heard any concrete plans for securing new and additional monies for the operation of women's programs. This is disturbing and needs solving. When the solution to financing is arrived at without

seriously damaging present programs, whatever opposition that may exist will disappear overnight. Thus, it is essential that the NCAA, the AIAW, the NAIA, and the AAHPER work together, not separately, because women's sports affect all groups.

So in closing let me reiterate the case for cooperative action by our organizations. The problems of one group are the problems of the other groups. Let us first get together with each other, rather than go our separate ways. All we need to come up with for solutions are a prevailing spirit of cooperation and a respect on the part of each of us for the contributions and the roles that the other organizations play in providing a total program. There is no doubt that we have the know-how in our memberships, if only we have the will and the humility to ask for it.

AIAW-NCAA-PHYSICAL EDUCATION: AN UNHAPPY TRIANGLE?

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The title implies a triangle in the sense of three parts in conflict, working against each other—one part perhaps struggling for supremacy over the other two or two parts pulling in one direction to the detriment of the third party. At the very least the implication is one of static quibbling, selfish protection of prerogative and power, and lack of progress; this implication completely omits the element that should be our central focus: educational benefits that should accrue to our students.

Of course, as a teacher, as a coach, as an athletic administrator, and as a sports enthusiast I would hope that though these implications are possibilities, each of these groups will be willing and able to rise above personal priority and see beyond immediate gain or loss to a greater gain for our students.

So I would opt for another type of triangle. Not the eternal male-female-male or female-male-female one alluded to in much of our fiction or the triangle of conflict, but the mathematical triangle. We have often used geometrical figures and diagrams in physical education and sports to portray relationships among various programs and to depict graphically movement patterns and offensive and defensive strategies.

In the diagram of my triangle, rather than name the sides Physical Education, NCAA, and AIAW, I prefer to think of them as physical education, intercollegiate competition opportunities for men, and intercollegiate competition opportunities for women.

With these three parts in mind, I would opt for eternal triangles of two types. First, the equilateral triangle, in which all three sides are equal, all angles are equal, and each side is equally essential to the formation of the concept. This triangle symbolizes to me a unity of purpose, an appreciation of the necessity for three parts, a recognition of the worth of three sides, and cooperation.

In this triangle, though I represent an area of athletics, I would place physical education at the base in that all the motor, psychomotor, and cognitive attributes essential for fair and excellent competition can and should be developed through instructional programs beginning in early childhood education.

The second triangle for which I would opt is the triangular pattern frequently used in offensive and defensive maneuvers in sports and physical education: the three-man pattern of teamwork in which the leading player with the ball draws the defense and then passes off to one of the others who then thrusts forward through the space created or, on defense, the three-man pattern, sometimes a very peculiar-looking triangle, that resembles at times a piece of pie and at other times a line of three but always provides a two-deep or three-deep partner type of protection and initiation of offense.

Both of these triangles call for teamwork, cooperation, and adjustment to the pressures of time but faith in the role that each of the three parts plays. They necessitate shared joint responsibility and leadership turn-taking according to the needs of a particular situation or time.

Up to the mid-1960s, opportunities for competition for women were extremely limited or nonexistent. None of the conferences, leagues, or national athletic associations was providing leadership or competitive participation for women. Historically, some of the blame for this neglect must be borne by women and by women in physical education. But blame is not important here; what is important is that at least half of our population was locked out of one large segment of school life, a segment, if we are to believe the words of past athletes and writers, that provides unique opportunities to learn in action the give-and-take, the leadership and team cooperation, and the competitive strategy and dedication that help prepare young people for life and a career in a democratic society.

CIAW and AIAW were developed to provide leadership and opportunities for college women. Membership was opened to institutions in 1971, and we now have grown to over 600 members including large universities, small colleges, and community/junior colleges. Our development as an association was going along rather smoothly. Many colleges and universities were beginning to implement programs for women, and we had increased support from men and women in physical education and from women's groups who had found in women's athletics an arena of clear discrimination. And we anticipated deliberate, planned growth that would avoid the excesses and problems that plagued some male athletic programs. Then came Title IX and our manner of growth was a route that was no longer the calm pathway it had been.

It's not the change that is so much of a difficulty but the pace of that change. We asked for it and we've got it. In my presentation prepared just over a week ago, I planned to discuss some of the problems within the women involved in athletic programs—the athletes, the coaches, the administrators—including the turmoils stemming from our entry into more of a pressure situation and surrounding decisions each woman and girl is experiencing as she examines her expectations and her commitment. It is an emotional time and a personal decision-making time for each of us.

We've been on the scene such a short time and one of the comments that has been made is that we can't expect too much too soon. "It took a long time to develop men's athletics"; we should be patient. Many women might be willing to be patient, but that is a choice we are not allowed.

In light of the events of the last week at the AIAW Delegate Assembly and at the NCAA convention, I have changed my remarks. Now, I shall comment on our maturation and our aging in the short time since I left Virginia.

Our association and our delegates learned a lot about itself and themselves, and the association survived and our cause is stronger today. I say "cause is stronger," for we are supporting two principles: the principle of equity (fairness) and the principle of equality of opportunity—for our students first and foremost. We have made cooperative efforts in attempting to solve problems in the past, and we are more than willing to continue to cooperate in the future, but on the basis of these two principles.

So I shall briefly examine our Delegate Assembly and highlight some of the major decisions we reached.

The Delegate Assembly directed the executive board to undertake a major restructuring study to report to the executive board in May 1975 and to be presented to the Delegate Assembly in 1976. As a board we established the principles of governance that must be included in this plan and the basic one is equality of representation of all subgroups and institutional types. The Delegate Assembly approved adding community/junior college representatives and small college representatives to the board from each of our regions. They were selected or elected and met with us following the Delegate Assembly. They have equal voice and vote. The restructuring committee has been directed to consider adding representation from sport committees and from student athletes.

A second area of decisions centered on relationships with other sport groups and associations. The delegates approved the concept of cosponsorship of national championships, and the executive board is empowered to consider cosponsorship, provided certain criteria are met. The delegates took the stand that cosponsorship should be undertaken in exceptional and unique instances. We have almost reached agreement with the United States Field Hockey Association to cosponsor a national collegiate field hockey championship in fall 1975, and we will meet with two other groups related to cosponsorship.

An additional point in relation to cooperative efforts: the Delegate Assembly in 1973 directed the board to meet with existing men's governing organizations in order to work out mutual problems. We had met with NCAA, understood that work would continue, and had no notice of the direction the NCAA council recommended. For the best interest of our members and our students we are still committed to cooperative efforts in this area.

The Delegate Assembly and the executive board considered a great many suggestions with regard to national championships. We will sponsor a cross-country championship for the fall of 1975, and we are considering both softball and tennis championships in 1976. We endorsed guidelines to be considered in adding championships that will allow divisional possibilities by membership type.

Another area of decisions had to do with ethics and eligibility decisions, the study of our current limitations on grants-in-aid, and a restructuring of penalties so that students do not suffer for decisions made by governing groups or individuals.

And we did a lot of housekeeping clarification. We have moved fast, considering the short period we have been in existence, but most of these decisions give us the ability to forge ahead more quickly.

So I think decisions in each of these areas reflect our association's commitment to cooperation and to the principles of equity and equality for students, for different types of members, and for all voices within our association.

Now a bit apart from the marathon of this past week. In cooperative ventures we learn from each other. We women in athletics have already learned a great deal from physical education and from men's governing groups. I cannot overemphasize the influence my experience in coaching has had on my ability as a teacher. I have had to learn more highly developed skills and that has carried over into my teaching. I have also learned from coaching and from coed teaching that we have pampered the women in our classes and we have cheated them both in what they can do and in the expectations we encourage them to set for themselves.

On the other hand, cooperative efforts will have benefits for coaching and athletics. The students are becoming more aware of space and movement patterns, which I consider crucial to strategy. Increased emphasis on early childhood programs will prepare students better, but, in addition, the approaches and techniques have implications for us in the coaching situation. These are just two observations of the benefits in practical terms that I see in working together.

Thus, I see interesting years ahead and an opportunity to learn from each aspect of this triangle, to work jointly for mutual benefit, not for power but for benefits to our students and our athletes—female and male. The opportunity is there. To benefit our students in these ways we must be cooperative, we must be creative, and we must be open to change and learning. AIAW is committed to these possibilities.

AIAW-NCAA-PHYSICAL EDUCATION: AN UNHAPPY TRIANGLE?

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Focus your attention on the title "AIAW-NCAA-Physical Education: An Unhappy Triangle?" and the words *physical education profession.* Are these three organizational functions a triangle at all, either happy or unhappy?

There are several kinds of triangles and the dictionary defines that a triangle has three sides and three angles. Perhaps that is a good start when we do not attempt to determine the lengths of any of the sides, the name on any side, the name on the bottom, or the names on the sides that rise to the top. Also, we are not determining any of the angles. The proposition may become complex if we attempt to decide immediately if it is a happy or an unhappy triangle.

Physical education as a proposed part of the triangle is presented to us as a profession. Physical education is part of education in progress and in interpretation; physical education of itself and as education is part of life in process and in application. Physical education as part of education and life can be examined. As part of education and life, physical education must be examined. Socrates wrote, "The life which is unexamined is not worth living." The examination of life, education, or a profession should be frequent and it should be almost continuous. Examination should be through thought and by plan. Examination should be of the process and for the results sought.

A life, an education, and a profession should be examined and tested too in the ways now known, by methods presently in the stage of development, and through techniques yet to be discovered.

There are exact measures of life—years, money, rooms in the house. There are certain measures of education—correct answers, grades, certificates on the wall, titles after the name. There are sure counts of one's physical education professional background and condition—awards on the shelf, number of grants, quantities of papers written. Are these the only measures and are they the full measure?

In life, education, and the profession we must measure with metric form what can be counted in meters, we must weigh what can be weighed, and we must tabulate, filter, count, and chart and we must understand, interpret, relate, and apply.

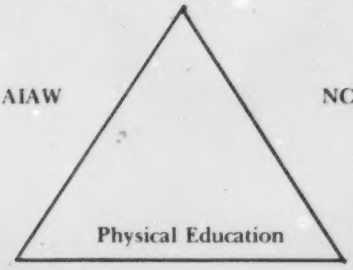
In our profession as in education and in life, we must measure with the mind those matters of the mind; we must feel with the heart some matters of the full heart; and we must sense and understand with spirit the inherent quality of biological and life spirit and give enhancement to the human condition.

There are ambiguities in life, in education, and in our profession. In our ambiguities lie our individual challenges and our continuous opportunities for the acts of exploration and for the joys of discovery. Our field is so broad, our participants are so numerous, and their life routes are so long and varied that we may never be able to run all of the tests or to tally all of the scores that represent the results of our leadership through our lives of personal and professional commitment.

In our ambiguities may lie some of the great good we may do, and also in our abstractions and subjectivities lie some of our faults. We must examine; we must appraise as well as we know how to do and as conscientiously as we can.

AN UNHAPPY TRIANGLE?

We have the triangle topic with which to deal. The triangle as proposed puts AIAW, NCAA, and physical education on three sides:

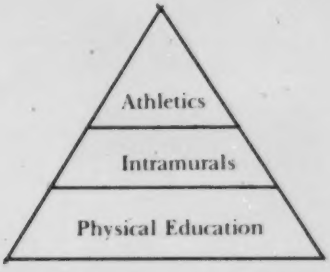


The adjective *unhappy* suggests something of a vying relationship. We might deal with the triangle if we think of it as a YMCA or YWCA triangle in which there are some common or interrelated interests in which the three sides hold the whole content or enterprise together.

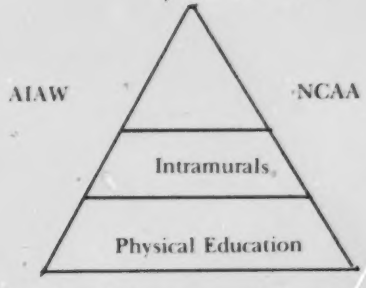
The three sides of the AIAW-NCAA-phyical education triangle represent the specialized functioning of three groups. AIAW and NCAA have one-line functions, but they are not professions. I propose that physical education is a profession and in this triangle is represented in but one function of its full scope. The three groups will learn to function effectively and to solve problems, although in the process some of the situations may be unhappy. The triangle is not a totally appropriate representation of the whole profession of physical education. Let us not use this graphic form or the expression "an unhappy triangle."

THE TRIANGLE

There is another development of graphic imagery frequently employed that places physical education at the base of the triangle with athletics at the apex. The middle slice represents intramurals.



To match the title of this discussion, we will substitute AIAW and NCAA at the apex.

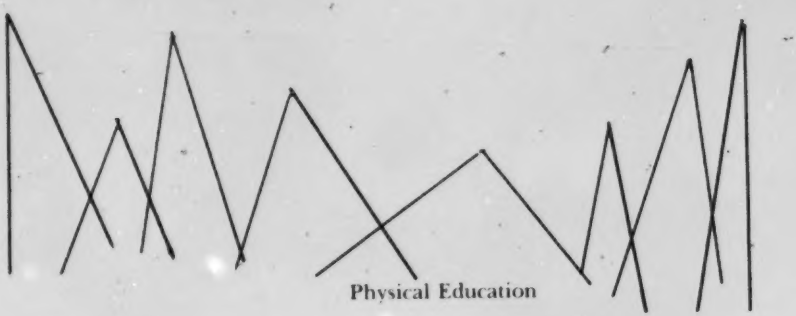


Each one of these two diagrams constitutes a faulty view of physical education for two major reasons: (1) the objective of physical education is not athletics; (2) the objective of athletics is to win—if the game is lost the profession fails and incidentally so does athletics.

The logic as suggested by the diagrams might propose that physical education has no end in itself, that it is not of humanistic or general-education value. It might suggest that athletics is physical education that succeeds and conversely that physical education is athletics that fails. Let us rid ourselves of that triangle and clear our minds of that imagery.

OTHER REPRESENTATIONS

Let us try some other graphic representations and with clear thinking develop a form that represents the situation better.



I work with this one, but the form is not set. Differ from it if you wish. Form some logical professional conclusions and block them out representatively. Knowledge, judgment, and thinking should be the basis for professional philosophy and conduct.

Here physical education has an integrity and a completeness. From the base may arise intramurals, athletics, club sports, casual sport, vigorous and intense participation, activity for body form and fitness, and others. These outgrowths from the program are all part of the professional intentions and the planned inclusions. These extensions may be classified or drawn according to the nature of the participation itself or according to the nature and the needs of the participant. The width and length of the peaks may be formulated to represent one of several elements, such as time spent, number of persons involved, degree of skill, and effort or intensity.

In such a diagram we maintain the integrity of a profession and allow for individual professional variations in leadership and for personal choice for individuals based upon life interests and needs.

PROFESSION

In the first paragraph I employed the word *profession*. In past experiences and discussions we may have heard these questions: Do we think we are a profession? Do we want to be? Is education itself a profession? What are the characteristics of a profession?

Characteristics of a Profession

The characteristics of a profession, compiled from the experiences and ideas of fellow workers in our field of educators and of persons in some other professions are:

1. There is an organized body of knowledge with an organized body of persons engaged in the calling.

2. There exists a measure or standard for developed knowledge and technical skill and competency of the members based upon scientific and philosophic facts premised on scholarly endeavor.

3. A standard is set for the selection of the members based upon their qualifications to accomplish the objectives of the profession.

4. There is an established self-regulation of the members and of the body.

5. There exists an identifiable and essential service and a commitment of new members motivated by social concern in working for some aspect of the good of society.

6. There is a responsibility and autonomy. A professional group as a body must be competent to set the terms for the nature and conduct of its services.

7. There is a pattern or code of ethical conduct.

The AAHPER is working on a statement that will represent the beliefs and expressions of its members in regard to ethical practices and conduct. The affiliated organizations within the alliance are encouraged to develop their own statements and commitments that will reflect the specific interests of their professional services.

Are we characterized by those conditions explained as characteristics. Are those characteristics qualifications? Do we qualify as a profession? Do we have a body of knowledge and a body of qualified persons upon which we can build a profession? If we have any shortcomings, can we make up for them? Do we need to? Can we eliminate our shortcomings and qualify as a profession? Do we have any unusual ways of functioning? Do we have unique contributions to make to education and to life's purposes and action? Shall we argue these as substitutes for our shortcomings, or shall these be added to the strengths and graces of our lives and service?

We Have Unique and Identifying Qualities in the Profession of Physical Education

1. We have a life concept. We have an interdisciplinary approach to life and living through educative preparation for health, productivity, action, and the joy of being. We have human concern and fellowship.

2. We set goals that are both objective and subjective. We embrace learnings that are both concrete and abstract. We give emphasis to both the real and the ideal.

3. We take personal responsibility, and through enlightened wisdom and applied judgment we work with individuals on matters of critical importance in their lives.

4. We believe that pay or recognition may not be in full measure for our qualification, productivity, service, or influence.

5. We seek for excellence in ourselves as persons and professionals, and we seek as earnestly for the ways to aid others to know and live and enjoy fully the essential and the true quality of life.

This profession is unique. It aims for more in total human results to be applied and enjoyed in human living. It may accomplish many real but perhaps immeasurable objectives that may become unidentified in many life spans of unnumbered human beings.

Our professional work in education and in the lives of people is representative of the many disciplines of education. Our work is quantitative and qualitative. Our work is directed toward both short-term and long-term objectives. We must employ as well as we can the methods and the measures and

evaluations of the scientific and the humanistic disciplines. We must evaluate the quantitative and the qualitative. We must work for and look for the short-term results, and we must strive for, wait for, and attempt to identify the long-term realizations.

We have no triangles. We have a profession to serve. We have professional problems to solve. The athletic programs of AIAW and NCAA are within the encompassment of our professional problems. They carefully become the committed concern and the labor of some of us.

Our work in physical education, our endeavors in education, and our expressions in life conduct are evidence of what we know well to practice and what we believe thoroughly enough to live and apply.

As physical educators, we are examined every day. To fulfill the qualifications for a profession that deals with education and life, we must know and believe in and examine the fullness of our every endeavor, for "the life which is unexamined is not worth living."

MULTISTAGE STRESS TESTING

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The multistage stress test serves two basic purposes: (1) it represents the ultimate test of physical fitness or physical work capacity, and (2) it is one of the most effective means of determining suspected or latent coronary heart disease. The former purpose is one associated primarily with physical educators or exercise physiologists. The latter purpose is in the purview of medicine, although there is considerable overlapping in the interests of the groups. A more detailed description of the interests and responsibilities of each group is presented elsewhere by the author.[7]

There is increasing use of multistage stress tests for medical purposes as well as for screening in exercise programs. The recognition that a functional or stress test yields more information about the state of the heart and arteries has been rapidly building with cardiologists. A multistage test with ECG (electrocardiogram) is the most sophisticated test, short of coronary angiogram, in diagnosing coronary artery disease.

Directors are frequently requiring a multistage stress test for admission to adult fitness programs. In addition to medical information, the screening test yields baseline fitness information that can be used in prescribing exercise intensity, duration, and frequency. In many cases such tests are now conducted in university laboratories and YMCAs.

TYPES OF TESTS

The three modalities for stress testing include the treadmill, the bicycle ergometer, and the step test. Each has its advantages and disadvantages, but all three techniques can utilize a multistage approach. The treadmill speed and elevation can be increased progressively, the pedal rate and load on the bicycle ergometer can be increased, and both step rate and height can be increased in the step test. The major advantage of the multistage test is that it allows any subject to begin at a load that can be tolerated and proceeds to a maximal level of stress for that individual. Thus, the early low level of stress operates as a warm-up and familiarizes the subject with the task. Experience in our laboratory has led us to select the treadmill test as the preferred technique of testing. The subject is less likely to exhibit local muscular fatigue with a walking-running test, and the motivation is externally applied.

A maximal test is likely to yield more definitive information about the subject than a submaximal test. Obviously it is unwise because of age or disease potential to apply a maximal test to some patients. In such cases, testing is usually restricted to a set HR (heart rate) or symptoms, silent or otherwise. Astrand[1] and Hellerstein[5] use HR limits; many other cardiologists recommend a maximal such as used by Cooper[2] and Bruce.[3] The assumption underlying a

maximal test is that ECG or other abnormalities will not appear in some cases until the cardiovascular system is under maximum stress. This has been the major criticism of the resting test and its later successor, the Masters Step Test.

PROCEDURES

There has been a great deal of effort in recent years to establish acceptable practices related to exercise testing and prescription.[2,3,5,6,7] The American College of Sports Medicine will shortly publish guidelines dealing with responsibilities for the various professions. Although the most sophisticated of testing facilities will vary slightly in procedures, there is some consistency in protocol.

Before testing, a recent medical examination and health history are usually required. We pay particular attention to the identification of high-risk factors, such as obesity, hypertension, elevated cholesterol, sedentary living, smoking, heredity, and psychic stress. In addition, a legal release, or the signing of an informed consent statement, is mandatory.

The decision to have a physician in attendance is usually determined by the age, health status, and fitness of the subject. Below the age of 30 the likelihood of uncovering latent disease is remote in low-risk subjects. Most middle-aged persons, however, do not fall into a low-risk profile. Many physicians will require a preliminary 12-lead resting ECG for middle-aged subjects. Resuscitative equipment and a defibrillator should be on hand with the physician.

Resting HR and BP (blood pressure) are obtained from the subject and a target HR are established as a guideline to load. The target HR is an estimate of maximum HR, and we have found the 220—age formula to be extremely predictive, i.e., 220—40(age)=180 PMHR (predicted maximum HR). During the test the HR is recorded minute by minute with constant ECG monitoring. BP is recorded at least every three minutes or at the end of each stage of the test. The test we have selected is the Bruce Multi-Stage Test, which can usually elicit a maximum HR in a period of eight to twelve minutes.[3] The test begins with slow walking (1.7 mph at 10 percent) and continues through three-minute stages until the subject fatigues.

Several parameters could signal a premature cessation of the test, the most important of which would be subject symptoms. Chest pain, faintness, nausea, or other excess discomfort are signals to stop the test. Among the more common ECG abnormalities that might trigger the end of the test are: excess ST segment depression on ECG, PVC (premature ventricular contractions) runs, unusual HR response, and arrythmia (irregular beats). Abnormal BP response is another cause for concluding the test.

POST-TEST CONSIDERATIONS

Completion of the multistage stress test with above average fitness level and no cardiovascular abnormalities is perhaps one of life's most satisfying moments for the middle-aged subject. An exercise prescription will be based on the patient's fitness level, age, and ECG tracing during the peak stress period and should include frequency, intensity, and duration of the training period. Among the guidelines usually followed are: (1) exercise does not meet the intensity required to produce the maximum HR attained during testing, and (2) cardiovascular training effects can be achieved in the range of 60-80 percent of the maximum HR. There are several excellent sources for devising exercise programs suitable to the individual's interests and needs. While the multistage

stress test need not be repeated at frequent intervals, neither should the results be considered permanent. Periodic testing and reevaluation are in order, especially in the middle-aged or older subject.

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UTILIZATION OF SOCIAL-LEARNING THEORY IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION[1]

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It is the purpose of this presentation to (1) question the traditional personality assessment methods used by the physical education profession; (2) expose you to the fundamental assumptions, constructions, and formulations of social-learning theory (SLT); and (3) suggest its application to a variety of motivational questions in the field.

The explanation of why an individual participates in sports or physical activity is a matter of conjecture. Persons interested in sport psychology have endeavored to investigate the personality attributes of the sport participant through the use of various standardized psychological instruments, but the majority of these studies have yielded inconsistent and contradictory results.[2] Interpretation is therefore difficult. The personality profiles of the athlete, casual participant, and nonathlete continue to be unclear. Why is this? Could it be the tools used for measurement are based upon questionable assumptions that make them inadequate for prediction and understanding?

QUESTIONING THE METHOD

The instruments used by physical education have been the traditional state (psychodynamic, projective) and trait (Cattell, Edwards) approaches to personality assessment. The utilization of these methods has been commendable, but

many contemporary psychologists have been critical of their use. Most notable have been Mischel,[3] Wallace,[4] and Rotter.[5] The state and trait approaches assume that all individuals possess generalized and enduring personality characteristics that manifest themselves across all situations. If a person is high in the trait or state of aggression, this characteristic is assumed to guide him and demonstrate itself in all situations. The overwhelming majority of empirical evidence using these two approaches refutes this assumption. Highly generalized behavioral consistencies that appear across varied situations have not been demonstrated;[6] yet we continue to use state and trait methods, perhaps hoping for clarification and insight. It appears that the additional gathering of state and trait data is not warranted at this time.[7]

What is the cause of this inadequacy and resulting criticism? Traditional approaches pay little attention to environmental conditions that are significant variates in the determination of behavior. They endeavor to assess general characteristics and, therefore, cannot predict behaviors in various and specific situations. Behavior specific to the situation and determined by environmental stimuli and personality attributes is the trend in psychological theory.[8] This has intuitive appeal. For example, some people are very aggressive and competitive on the court or field but quite docile and submissive in nonsport situations. Also, some individuals behave differently depending upon the sport or level of competition in which they are engaged. The specific situation in which the individual finds or places himself will have a causal effect upon his behavior. This point dictates the following: if high prediction and understanding of behavior are desired, tests must be devised to predict motive strengths in specified situations or classes of situations and not to assess abstract generalized personality needs or traits.[9]

In summary, the state and trait methods of personality assessment have been ineffective in the prediction of physical activity behavior because they have failed to consider the effect of specific situational influences in sport. Individuals have different physical activity motives due to differences in past sport experiences and their individual perceptions of these experiences. Traditional approaches that have no explicit reference to sport situations have been used by physical educators unsuccessfully. They assess generalized personality needs, which lack the specificity necessary for prediction.

AN ATTRACTIVE ALTERNATIVE

What theoretical and assessment alternatives are there? Social-learning theory is one that warrants consideration. Its strengths combine to make it uniquely comprehensible, operationally measurable, and highly predictive.

The assumptions of SLT are straightforward. First, it rejects behavioral consistency across situations and, therefore, the state and trait approaches.[10] Second, SLT rejects the psychodynamic drive-reduction mechanism in favor of a more cognitive approach.[11] Man is goal oriented; he is driven by his own thoughts, not by his subconscious or physiological drives. Third, a strong situational stance is taken, which seeks the determinants of behavior in both psychological and situational realms with particular concern given to their interaction.[12] Therefore, personality and situational influences combine to direct behavior, which is an orientation not taken by the traditional methods mentioned before. Fourth, behavior is goal directed and may be predicted through knowledge of the individual's past learning experience and the behavioral situation. Past experiences and observation have determined the value given to re-

reinforcements or goals available in a situation and have determined the expectancy of attaining them through specific behavior.[13] The individual will choose behavior based upon his experience that will maximize his attainment of positive reinforcements.

Generally speaking, SLT emphasizes the person's interaction with his social environment and what he learns from it in terms of values and expectations. SLT is a flexible, dynamic theory to explain behavior choice and personality changes due to experience.

BASIC CONSTRUCTS AND FORMULATIONS

Several interrelated constructs are utilized in SLT, namely, behavior potential (BP), reinforcement value (RV), and expectancy (E). The situation in which behavior occurs is the fourth construct and is implicit in its effect upon the previous three. (I will not deal with the internal-external locus of control other than to acknowledge its existence in passing.) RV is the degree of a person's preference for a particular reinforcement from a set of potential reinforcements. It is the value placed upon a particular goal or set of goals in comparison to others. Over a period of time, people establish and revise these values based on experience. Obviously people value the rewards of sports differently and participate in varying degrees. The construct of RV certainly has intuitive appeal. Measurement of RV is accomplished by having subjects rate or rank reinforcements to indicate preference. A Likert scale may be used as a convenient method.

The probability perceived by an individual that a particular reinforcement will occur as the result of a specific behavior on his part in a specific situation(s) is defined as E. Subjects may indicate their E for a reinforcement by probability statements or betting techniques. The greater the probability statement or bet, the higher the E of attaining a reinforcement. Again, past experience dictates the subjective probability or expectation of attaining reinforcements. Some people have a small expectancy of achieving or winning in sports and, therefore, do not participate.

BP is the potentiality of any behavior occurring in any given situation(s) and is a function of RV and E: BP = f(RV & E).[14] When high value is placed upon reinforcements and they are highly expected, BP will be high. Behaviors with the highest potential for any given situation are more likely to occur and show greater frequency. For example, the motivation or potential for participating in basketball is a function of the value a person places upon making a field goal, winning, running, jumping, making a rebound, etc., and the expectation he has of achieving these goals. A person will choose basketball if its BP is higher than that of other behavioral alternatives. In terms of measurement, the quantity of BP is arrived at by using either an additive (BP = RV + E) or multiplicative model (BP = RV x E).[15] RV is a preference or ranking of available reinforcements, E is a subjective probability statement of attaining them, and BP is the resultant predictor of behavior. Note the theoretical definitions of RV and E lend themselves to being operationalized; this is a strength of SLT.

FUNDAMENTAL PROCEDURES

The assumptions and constructs of this theory necessitate that the first step in its use be a detailed and rigorous examination of the situation in which prediction is desired. The interview, questionnaire, or other assessment technique

used must be referenced to the specific environment in which behavioral choice is to occur. In this way, subjects are permitted increased knowledge of a specific situation causing their self-predictions, hypotheses of behavior, or self-reports to increase in utility.[16] In this manner, control for cross-situational variation is enhanced, which results in greater situational specificity and, therefore, increased prediction and understanding.

A list of reinforcements available in the situation of interest must be enumerated. This compilation should consist of concrete reinforcements and goals the subject may attain. Reinforcements within the physical activity realm could fall within homogeneous groups of social, achievement, ascetic, vertigo, esthetic, health, and cathartic goals. Assessment and comparison of these reinforcement groups would then benefit estimates of reliability and validity for test construction and hypothesis testing. It cannot be overemphasized that the effects of situational variation upon self-reports of behavior must be controlled for by referencing our instruments to a specific sport, physical education class, or physical activity.

A QUESTION OF MOTIVATION

SLT may be applied to several questions of major interest to physical educators. First, students who exhibit varying degrees of BP or motivation for class participation could be grouped for instructional purposes. Programs could be tailored to enhance and raise the value of expectancy of reinforcements in lesser motivated students. A second question aligned with the previous one is the effect of various teaching styles, teacher behaviors, and program types on BP. The objective would be to identify methods that increase the value held for physical activity and also increase the expectancy of attaining such reinforcements as success, skill attainment, and enjoyment. The result may be an elevation of the potentiality (BP) of engaging in activities and the promotion of lifetime participation.

Crandall and McGhee report five studies investigating the relationship of course grades and achievement test scores to self-estimates of the same. Subjects were asked to estimate the probability of their best and worst course grade and achievement test score. In this manner, subjects indicated their expected grade and score. In all five studies with elementary, college, junior high, and high school subjects, significant correlations were found between expectancies and actual course grades and achievement test scores.[17] Studies by Battle[18] and Cranfall, Katkovsky, and Preston[19] report similar findings. Expectations were highly "predictive" of actual grade and score outcomes. Two related interpretations of these studies have merit: (1) the self-fulfilling prophecy is affecting academic performance, and (2) the subject's expectancy statement is based upon past experience and is, therefore, a valid indication of ability, interest, and motivation in the course. Subjects with low estimates of achievement could be given specialized help. This could be done in physical education. Also, changes in initial assessments of motivation due to gymnasium experiences would be invaluable in testing the worth of traditional and innovative methods or curricula.

Third, SLT could be utilized for testing and counseling in professional preparation. Young persons must be sought who value the rewards the profession has to offer and expect to be successful in attaining them. We wish to predict which members of our entering students are highly motivated to become a teacher. For example, reinforcements could be grouped into homogeneous areas such as those from teaching and those from coaching. Students highly mo-

tivated to coach and not to teach could be advised to take a coaching minor rather than a physical education major.

Fourth, the prediction and understanding of various sport behaviors are also of interest. The motives of athletes, informal participants, and nonparticipants could be investigated through analysis of their values and expectancies. In addition, the motives for attending or avoiding physical education class could be analyzed. Also, the question of why a person continues to engage in physical activity or becomes sedentary may be answerable.

An exploratory study undertaken by this author indicates the solution to these questions may be possible. Its purpose was to investigate the utility of BP, RV, and E in predicting participation in organized sport. Using the basic procedures previously mentioned, reinforcements available through sports participation were enumerated. The list of 69 items was compiled through the use of theories in sport psychology and the insight of experienced participants. Some examples include "occupy my free time and overcome boredom," "break a record," "make new friends," "show my masculinity," "release my tensions," and "enhance my physical appearance." To assess RV the subject indicated his preference using a Likert scale of (1) extremely important, (2) very important, (3) important, (4) slightly important, and (5) not important. The sentence stem, "I participate in sports to . . ." was implied to precede each reinforcement for rating. Identical items were presented to assess E using the scale (1) always expected, (2) often expected, (3) sometimes expected, (4) seldom expected, and (5) never expected. In this assessment the stem "In my future sports participation and experiences I expect to . . . " was used. Subjects were 550 male and female members of physical education classes at the University of Maryland during the spring of 1974. The sample also included members of the 1973-74 University of Maryland football and lacrosse teams. All subjects completed the questionnaire to rate their RV and E and also a sports information form giving pertinent demographic data.

The analysis is not complete at this time, but a partial presentation of findings utilizing the male sample is appropriate. (The completed findings will be available at some future date.) BP was found using the multiplicative model by multiplying the subject's mean RV score by his mean E score. A 4 x 4 contingency table was completed to analyze the relationship of BP to participation in organized sport (Table I). Subjects were classified according to the quartile in which their BP score fell and whether they were a nonparticipant, informal (or recreational) participant, college intramural player, or intercollegiate athlete. (Note the unequal marginal frequencies for BP were caused by estimated quartile ranges using a grouped-data technique.) An obtained X^2 value of 17.285 was found to be significant well beyond the .001 level, but a tau (τ) of .04 indicated the strength of the relationship was weak. It must be emphasized, however, that tau is a very conservative statistic.

TABLE I

Contingency Table Analysis of BP for Sports Participation and Reported Participation

	Behavior Potential (BP)				
	Q1 Low BP	Q2	Q3	Q4 High BP	Total
Nonparticipant	17	4	7	4	32
Informal	34	28	16	20	98
Intramural	25	36	25	25	111
Intercollegiate	8	23	19	44	94
Total	84	91	67	93	335

$X^2 = 47.285$ ($p < .001$, 9 df.)

$\tau = .04$

The frequencies in rows one and four of Table I show a trend in the expected directions; specifically, a greater number of low BP scores for nonparticipants and a corresponding greater number of high BP scores for intercollegiate athletes were found. A significant but weak relationship does exist between BP to participate in organized sport and reported participation. It should be noted that the instrument is assessing general sports participation and, therefore, lacks a desired degree of specificity. Also, this instrument did not use homogeneous item groups for the assessment of reinforcements. This would have been desirable for an estimate of reliability. Eventually this item pool will be factor analyzed to detect homogeneous groupings and item selection completed. The goal is the presentation of reinforcements or groups of reinforcements that discriminate among subjects demonstrating varying sport behaviors. These tentative conclusions are reserved but optimism is implied.

CONCLUSION

Personality research in the area of psychology of sport and physical activity done to date has been commendable but the need for new theories and approaches is indicated. Assumptions and empirical findings of SLT suggest that it is an alternative of great potential in comparison to state and trait methods of motivational and personality research. Its dual emphasis on environmental and personality factors affecting behavior has received much empirical, theoretical, and intuitive support. Kenyon's work in conceptualizing the physical activity situation by investigating personal attitudes is a beginning.[20] If true insight is to be attained, we must rigorously analyze, conceptualize, operationalize, and test within our own movement situations. Let us take the initiative and move in this direction.

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STRESS MEASUREMENT DEVICES: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

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Instruments that measure stress as well as truth have been available for some time. However, it has only been recently that the science of "truth verification" and measurement of stress has become a big business, in spite of some evidence that has cast doubt on the validity of lie detectors, stress evaluators, and similar devices.

The use of these instruments has greatly expanded since the time in which their sole use was interrogation in criminal cases. In order to curtail increases in the rising cost of their operations, some businesses are attempting to eliminate employee thefts—a significant amount according to the officers of the Marriott Corporation and other large businesses. Lie-detecting devices are increasingly being used to alleviate this problem. This is currently a serious issue with unions and civil rights groups opposing this means of offsetting shrinkage plaguing many corporations and companies.

Two instruments in the news recently appear to have a valuable potential for use in several facets of education, including physical education. The two machines are the Psychological Stress Evaluator and the Zero Input Tracking Analyzer. Both machines measure stress, but they measure different types of stress and use different methods. No attempt will be made, therefore, to compare one against the other in the form of a consumer-report diagnosis.

PSYCHOLOGICAL STRESS EVALUATOR

First, we will examine the PSE (Psychological Stress Evaluator). The development of this machine is attributed to three men: Allen Bell, Bill Ford, and Charles McQuiston. Bell and McQuiston, former lieutenant colonels, retired from Army Intelligence several years ago and formed a company called Dektor Counterintelligence and Security. This was a logical career for two men who were experts in technology of espionage. McQuiston was a secret agent in the army for 26 years, serving on all continents except Africa, and, in addition, is one of the foremost polygraph experts in the country. Bell was also a secret agent in the army and served 20 years in that capacity. Bill Ford served in Vietnam in related duties and is an electronic designer.

The PSE grew from an effort to improve the lie detector. The conventional polygraphs measure four physiological variables: pulse, blood pressure, respiration, and perspiration. Some also measure additional variables. The more variables that are measured, the more valid are the results of the polygraph. In careful examination of the voice, Bell and McQuiston discovered that the frequencies that compose it are not fixed; they shift eight to fourteen times every second. However, when an individual is under stress, this normal modulation frequency disappears. The remaining frequencies are the pure component frequencies of the voice, and when this occurs, there is a strong indication that the individual is lying or is holding back critical information. Thus, superimposed on the audible voice are inaudible frequency modulations. The FM (frequency modulation) quality of a voice is susceptible to the amount of stress that one may be under. In extreme cases of stage fright this is easily apparent even in the quality of the audible voice of a speaker or singer. However, to the human ear, a person under interrogation may sound perfectly normal and at ease, free of tremors or stress-revealing voice variations, when in fact there is little or no truth in his statements.

The human body has two nervous systems—the central nervous system and the autonomic nervous system (and their various subdivisions). In each of these there are the voluntary reactions (controlled by the brain) and the involuntary, or reflex, reactions (not controlled by the brain). The PSE is capable of detecting the inaudible effect of stress on the voice. Internal stress is reflected in a change in the inaudible variations of the voice; these differences cannot be heard, but they can be recorded and detected by the PSE.

The PSE as shown here (Fig. 1) comes conveniently built into a Samsonite briefcase. Bell and McQuiston originally were going to incorporate a device to measure this voice phenomenon as an additional channel of the polygraph. When they discovered that the new variable was such a reliable and accurate measure of psychological stress, there was felt no need to measure the other standard polygraph variables.

Figure 1

Panel controls include:

Mode selection
Edit button
Stylus heat
Base-line zero
Chart drive speed

The PSE has several advantages over the polygraph, since the use of the polygraph requires the individual be strapped to a chair, with a pneumographic tube placed around his chest, electrodes glued to his palms, and a blood-pressure cuff placed on his arm. On the other hand, the PSE can be used from a telephone conversation, a tape recorder, a record, or a direct interview. The device is used in conjunction with a four-speed Uher tape recorder that can be manually wound back to locate a specific spot on the tape. The testimony to be evaluated is recorded at a tape speed of 7½ inches of tape per second and then played back, stopping at the beginning of the question. The recorder is then placed on a speed of 15/16 inches per second and played. The voice—a low, muffled rumble—is no longer recognizable as human. As the tape recorder reels slowly turn, the stylus on the PSE dances lightly across the moving chart paper, leaving behind a clearly marked ragged trail of the audible and inaudible voice modulations. When the recorder is stopped, the chart paper and marking stops. The interpretation of the squiggly lines is left to the investigator's discerning eyes and analytical brain. The unstressed voice gives the appearance of sharp, jagged, and irregular icebergs. In contrast, the stylus recording of the inaudible modulations of a voice under stress is as smooth as a freshly trimmed hedge.

Figure 2 provides an excellent example of changes in charted voice modulations. This PSE charting was made from a taped recording of the conversation between a pilot and copilot prior to a fatal crash.[1]

After its development, the PSE was examined not only for validity of the instrument and chart interpretation criteria but also for the limits of its applicability. It was particularly rewarding to discover its ability to accept narrative answers as well as yes/no in order to discriminate between degress of stress. The inventors also felt that the PSE was capable of determining stress level on an absolute rather than a relative basis.[1]

The first test series performed used the TV program "To Tell The Truth." Only the statement "My name is. . . . " was used for evaluation. Thus, it required a short interpretation on an absolute basis. Of the 75 subject evaluations made, 71 were correctly identified—a success of 94.7 percent.[1]

A Maryland county police chief polygraph examiner used simultaneously the PSE and the polygraph. Twenty-six cases containing 162 relevant elements were corroborated by confession or investigation. The PSE evaluation provided the subsequently corroborated results in all elements for a 100 percent success.[1]

Another test series was structured to provide for comparison reaction to presumed emotion-producing words and presumed neutral words. The subjects read audibly words from each group from randomly presented cards. Of 52 elements in the seven tests, 52 were correctly identified as to word group, for a success of 98.4 percent.[1]

Over a thousand actual examinations have been carried out using the PSE in various ways, from psychiatric evaluation to criminal lie detection, with results equaling or exceeding the original validity checks on the PSE by its inventors. Explicit uses of the PSE up to now include preemployment screening, determining theft, evaluating employee morale, and discovering criminal activities; users include criminologists, psychiatrists, law enforcement officials, commercial organizations, and an airplane research corporation.[1]

There appear to be several excellent possibilities for the use of the PSE in our physical education major programs:

1. Screening and counseling majors.
2. Examining the relationship of the student teacher's and the cooperating teacher's stress.
3. Evaluating the change of stress in various segments of a lesson (lecture versus demonstrations versus individual assistance).
4. Comparing stress levels in the learning of different skills by major students in general.
5. Comparing stress levels in the learning of different skills by an individual student.
6. Studying stress in different discipline problems.
7. Studying stress in methods of handling discipline—this could be a study of the child or youth as well as the student teacher.
8. Studying stress in the use of different teaching methods—teacher oriented, child oriented, or a combination of these.
9. Studying stress on the student teacher in relation to size of the group being taught.
10. Studying stress on the student teacher as to age of the group being taught—elementary, junior high, high school, peer group.
11. Comparing stress levels as to teaching environment—field, gymnasium, pool, weight, or small exercise area.
12. Comparing teaching stress when facility is shared with another teacher of same sex with stress when facility is shared with another teacher of the opposite sex.

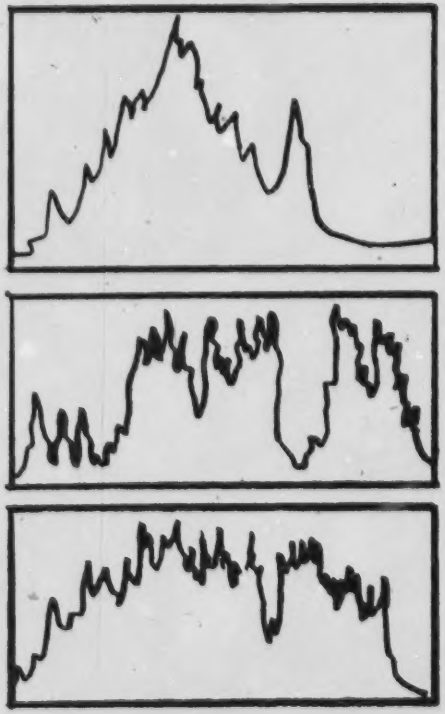
It would appear that the exciting possibilities for use in physical education are both interesting and challenging. If you, your department, or institution is interested in the PSE, it would be necessary to consult Dektor Counterintelligence and Security, Springfield, Virginia. The present cost of the machine is $4,200, which includes a two-day training course at the company required for all purchasers. Unless the purchaser has a background in criminology, investigation, or psychology, an additional two-day course, which follows the basic course, is offered and recommended; there is a $200 charge for this postbasic course.

Conclusions

It is suggested that an antagonistic view of the PSE should be considered. Even though the validity checks by the inventors are excellent, there are others who have not had these outstanding results.

According to William Raspberry, a *Washington Post* columnist, a report completed for the Army Land Warfare Laboratory at Aberdeen Proving Ground indicated that the PSE was significantly less accurate than the polygraph. Also, the report said the PSE was, in some ways, less reliable than judgments made on the basis of simply observing a subject's behavior. Also, a Fordham University professor, under contract with the army, tested students who were using role-playing techniques involving a criminal act. He found the polygraph gave an overall accuracy of 76 percent, but the PSE only produced an embarrassing 33 percent accuracy.[2]

Possibly the PSE is not as effective on an absolute basis as the inventors believe, but given a relative base to refer to, the machine has consistently been successful. It is obvious, though, that role playing and other trivia-type games



No Stress

Statement: "Up gear."

Situation: Pilot orders landing gear raised to start routine training exercise on missed approach.

Light Stress

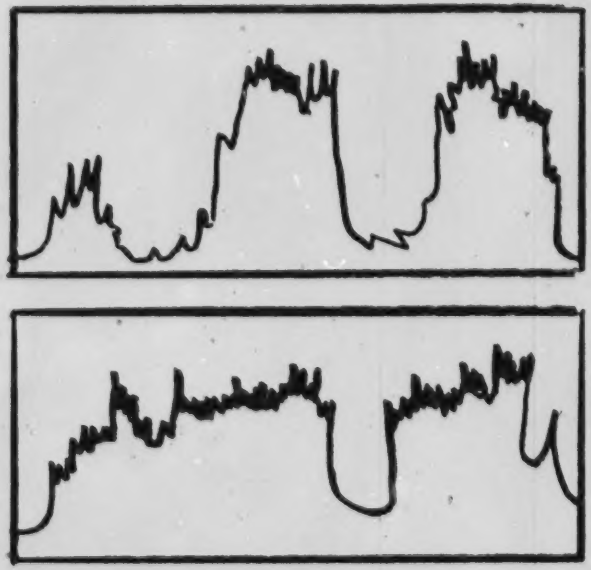
Statement: "Twenty-five flap."

Situation: Pilot orders flap setting for missed approach.

Medium Stress

Statement: "They're all out."

Situation: Copilot reports a hydraulic system malfunction (i.e., all pumps are out).



High Stress

Statement: "Takeoff power."

Situation: Pilot orders full power to regain control of aircraft.

Extreme Stress

Statement: We're over."

Situation: Copilot shouting that aircraft has rolled over to an inverted attitude. (Last statement made before crash.)

Synopsis: During a routine training exercise on missed approach procedures with one of the four engines set to idle to simulate loss of an engine during landing, the aircraft lost all hydraulic power. In attempting to correct the malfunction, the crew neglected to restore power to the idling engine. Because of the unequal thrust, the aircraft developed an extreme yaw cross-coupled with a roll and crashed in an inverted attitude, killing all the crew.

Figure 2. Sample Voice Analysis of Cockpit Recording during an Aircraft Accident

cannot approach real-life situations in developing stress. Countering some of these negative reports is a decision made September 1974 in a special hearing in Florida; it was recommended to the Florida Department of State that the PSE be used as an acceptable lie detection device.[3]

ZITA/ADT

Norman K. Walker, inventor of ZITA/ADT (Zero Input Tracing Analyzer/Auxiliary Distraction Task,) became interested in how people act under stress when he worked on guided missiles for the Royal Air Force in England in the early 1950s. Walker accepted the ability of the missile, but he was concerned with the performance of man in guiding the missile in combat and, even more, man's performance if the enemy is returning fire. Although there were graphs on missile performance and none on man, there was evidence that performance of even simple tasks deteriorated in combat conditions. His interest in the influence of stress was further heightened when he visited the Gettysburg battlefield and saw an exhibit of Confederate rifles that had been loaded as many as five times without being fired. Even though the soldiers were seasoned infantrymen, they apparently panicked under the Union bombardment and habitually loaded their rifles without firing. This initiated Walker's investigation of bombing records from World War II and the Korean conflict. He found there was a pattern of error under stress; the errors occurred in simple tasks—setting a dial, pulling a lever, pushing a button, twisting a knob.[4]

From this background of experience and increased interest, the development of ZITA began, with Walker deciding to measure man's performance by using as a functional base the simplest things a man can do.[4]

In the early 1960s, using an early model of ZITA, Walker tried to convince Great Britain and the United States that he could select better fighter pilots and helicopter gunners. His efforts were rewarded with small contracts, but he could not vindicate ZITA for large-scale use.[4]

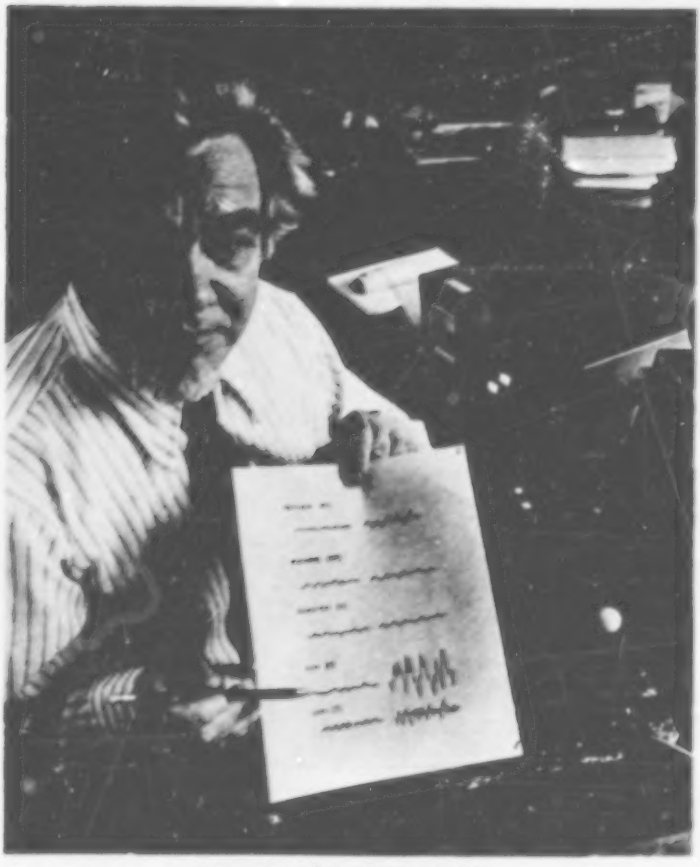
Accidently, a physician friend found that the machine had attributes other than the ability to identify pilots who could perform successfully during combat; the instrument is equally good in spotting children with minimal brain damage. Even more valuable, ZITA has functioned successfully with a child as young as four and can determine those who will be hyperactive as a result of brain damage. This early diagnosis means that many of these children can be successfully treated prior to entering school. Needless to say, this is important for the curtailment of many psychological and social problems. The machine has been able to identify correctly many minimally brain-damaged children about whom the doctors were unaware. Walker and his associates now estimate approximately 5 percent of the children have various degrees of hyperactivity due to minimal brain damage; this is a much greater amount than anyone suspected.[5]

In fourteen years of evolution, the ZITA/ADT system has been developed for the purpose of measuring human performance on a wide variety of tasks and under stress conditions. Originally developed and used for the selection of fighter pilots, it is also being used to diagnose a variety of problems of children and youth, and it is used experimentally to identify suitability for certain jobs.

ZITA/ADT is a very simple but accurate simulator that presents to the subject a series of tasks, each of which represents the essential elements of some real-world task, according to Walker. There are three basic tasks developed for the device; these are arbitrarily identified as Task A, Task B, and Task D. The

easiest task, Task D, is said to be equivalent to flying a stable plane or driving a car, probably on a bumpy road, because continuous oscillating movements of the control are necessary. Task A is the next most difficult task, and this is related to landing a light airplane or controlling a car on ice. The most difficult is Task B; the subject must adjust for a 1.25-second delay a spot of light that is controlled by a lever. This task is equated to a difficulty similar to landing a Boeing 727 with one engine out or controlling a tractor trailer on ice.

The ZITA/ADT instrument that is presently being used by Walker Associates weighs about 40 pounds and fits in two medium-sized suitcases (Fig. 3).



By courtesy of the *Washington Post.*

Figure 3. Norman Walker, Stress Tests, and ZITA/ADT.

The testing unit contains a small television screen that contains two horizontal lines and two vertical lines between the horizontal lines in the center of the screen. It is the task of the subject to keep a small moving dot of light between these vertical lines though manipulation of a lever. The lever is protruding above a small box placed in front of the subject. The lever moves only left or right, and this is also true of the moving dot.

In addition to this, the ADT produces an element that makes even the most simple task impossible for many hyperactive children. The ADT provides two sounds—a short high sound called a "ping" by Walker and a short low sound called a "pong." To the left of the subject (if his right hand is dominant) is another small box with two buttons arranged vertically. The top button is to be pressed with the left hand when the ping is heard, and the lower button is pressed when the pong occurs. The ping or pong is given on a random basis, but the frequency in which any sound is produced may be regulated from 2 to 5 seconds. When Task B, which provides a 1.25-second delay of the reaction of the movement of the lighted spot, is added to the ADT task having a 2-second frequency of the sounds, an extremely difficult task, which requires great concentration, is presented to the subject. The instrument panel has controls for adjustment in selection of the desired difficulty.

The readout of the performance appears after 30 seconds in the other unit, which is a digital panel meter. A permanent record of the trail is given on a Rustrak pen recorder. Small flashes of light indicate errors on the digital scope face.

Conclusions

The testing technique has been refined to such a level that it is now known how many practice trials should be given to establish the base performance; how many trials are best; and how best to order the presentation of the various tasks. ZITA ADT, according to Walker, is not an exclusive, self-sufficient test; it is a convenient means for summarizing all forms of psychomotor performance as well as the effects of stress, but "personality" information is also recommended. Walker Associates has records of subjects who failed or almost failed in difficult occupational functionings despite excellent performance on ZITA ADT—possibly these people are basically unreliable, reckless, or diffident. Nevertheless, it is difficult to justify a prediction that anyone who has produced a less than average ZITA ADT score will do well in a stressful occupation. In some cases, an individual older than average who has accumulated considerable job experience can and does compensate for his other deficiencies.[5]

It is more difficult to determine as much application of this instrument as of the PSE in developing a superior physical education teacher. Possibly the greatest potential, at the moment, would be its use to enhance those programs that are directed to preparing majors for teaching of preschool children and those in the elementary schools. Use, exposure, and additional application by Walker Associates and others will, no doubt, add other possibilities in the future.

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BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT SKILLS FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

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Students learn how to behave appropriately in a physical education setting. They also learn how to behave inappropriately in such settings. Sometimes, especially with younger children, behavior patterns developed elsewhere generalize to a new physical education setting. If these generalized behavior patterns are supported in physical education, they will become stronger, and if they are desisted, alternate patterns will begin to emerge as students discriminate the behavioral roles expected of them in various educational settings. The major point here is that behaviors contributing to effective classroom management, no matter how one defines that concept, are learned. Likewise, teacher behaviors and teacher skills that can be useful in helping students to learn self-management skills in physical education are themselves learned.

Since both student and teacher behaviors relative to management are learned, the question remains as to how they normally are learned. It has been our experience that both student and teacher behavior relative to classroom management are learned in a haphazard, unsystematic fashion through the unplanned effects of teacher-student interactions and other equally unplanned and unanalyzed environmental factors. The purpose of this paper is to outline strategies for teaching students how to behave appropriately in physical education settings and teaching teachers how to arrange factors in these settings so that learning occurs in a systematic, positive manner.

There are several recurring themes throughout this paper. The first is that of learned behavior; what we are talking about in classroom management are student and teacher behavior patterns that are learned and can be analyzed and taught in a teacher education program. The second theme is that of stimulus control, the antecedent events (cues, prompts, etc.) that a teacher provides to help students learn to discriminate appropriate role behavior. The third theme is that of using teacher behavior in the form of teacher reactions as con-

sequential events to provide reinforcement/feedback/punishment in the learning sequence. A fourth theme is that of using artifical or extrinsic consequences as reinforcement/feedback/punishment variables in teaching self-management. The third and fourth themes represent two variations of the same learning variable. Together with the student behaviors to be learned, the standard three-termed contingency for learning, i.e., an antecedent stimulus condition, a behavior, and feedback/reinforcement, becomes apparent. There is a fifth theme that worked its way into this paper and that is the existence of a continuum of learning approaches that range from highly systematic to less systematic and from highly formal to informal. The point on this continuum that is needed to teach effective classroom management skills to students depends on the current behavior of the students and the degree to which they are amenable or resistant to some of the less formal approaches.

DEFINITIONS OF BEHAVIORS IMPORTANT TO CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

We divide management into two fairly distinct behavioral groupings. In one sense classroom management can be judged in terms of the amount of time devoted to managerial endeavors, such as roll taking, switching stations, moving from space to space, getting organized to start a game, and attending to instruction once a signal for such attention has been given. The basic behavior category that we use for this is the *managerial episode*, the amount of time from the onset of a managerial cue (usually issued by a teacher but not necessarily so) until students actually begin the next productive sequence, which may be listening to teacher instruction or starting a game. The definition of managerial episodes assumes that little if any productive learning goes on during this time and also that there are likely to be higher rates of disruptive behavior during this time. The goal is obviously to reduce the length of such episodes. The measurement of a managerial episode is by duration of time and reflects a student-behavior or product measurement.

A second behavioral category within this grouping is teacher *managerial behaviors*, any prompts, cues, or other antecedent teacher behaviors that assist students in discriminating roles in management. Notice that these are not teacher reactions. A teacher who tells a class to form four volleyball teams of seven members so that they are in proper formation to begin a game has emitted one managerial behavior. The teacher who has to place each student in position has emitted a great many more. The goal here is to reduce the number of managerial behaviors per managerial episode. There is obviously a relationship between the number of managerial behaviors emitted and the length of the episode, and we operationally define student self-management as that condition in which students spend a minimum amount of time in managerial activity with as few teacher prompts as possible.

The second behavioral grouping relative to effective management is that of appropriate student behavior, what is normally referred to as "discipline." We use a three-tiered categorization of student behavior in this grouping. The base of the categorization scheme is student behavior considered appropriate for the setting and the specific situation within it. For example, it is appropriate for students to talk among themselves most of the time, but the same behavior is inappropriate if emitted while the teacher is giving instruction. The second level is productive student behavior, defined generally as behavior that contributes to learning. Listening to a teacher is considered to be both appropriate and

productive, while standing in line talking with a classmate is appropriate but not productive. The third category is active learning and refers to actual physical involvement with the activity-lesson. In this case, listening to a teacher, while both appropriate and productive, would not be considered to be active learning. The goal, of course, is to have a high percentage of student behavior that is appropriate, productive, and active. The major method for measuring student behavior in these categories is to count, at any given moment, the number of students engaged in one or more of the defined categories. These frequency count data can be converted to a percentage figure that reflects the degree to which the class can be said to be "well disciplined."

The major teacher behavior categories that are useful in assessing classroom management in this second sense are teacher reactions. The simplest method here is to dichotomize teacher behavior into (1) reactions to inappropriate student behavior and (2) reactions to appropriate student behavior. It can then be seen that simple frequency counts of these reactions, when combined with an estimate of the percentage of students behaving appropriately, will provide a good measure of both the level of discipline (student behavior) and the means whereby that discipline is maintained (teacher behavior). Our goal is to have a high rate of discipline with an equally high rate of positive teacher reactions, thus promoting positive classroom discipline.

LETTING STUDENTS KNOW THE RULES OF THE GAME

It is important to remember that the teacher's functional behaviors in relation to effective classroom management can be seen as those that precede student behavior and those that are reactions to student behavior. It is our contention that effective teacher preparatory activities and behaviors will serve to reduce management problems, both in terms of managerial episodes and rate of appropriate behavior. An ancillary benefit of the proper use of antecedent events is that it may allow for a substantial reduction in negative teacher reactions that so often characterize discipline.

It is important that teachers learn how to prepare and utilize techniques that provide for students clear guidelines for organization and appropriate behavior. The premise for this reflects one of our basic themes, so elementary in fact that it too often escapes attention. Students cannot learn how to behave in the physical education setting unless they are informed what appropriate behavior means for that setting. In effect, the teacher must lay down some ground rules for organizing and behaving in the gym. These rules might include such behaviors as attending class, being on time, being dressed appropriately, and being in the appropriate place at the start of class. As mundane as these behaviors might appear to be, we all know how difficult it is for a teacher to accomplish anything unless they occur with regular frequency. These behaviors are learned and should not be taken for granted. Most important, they may need direct teaching attention in order to boost their frequency of occurrence to the desired level.

Guidelines for class organization and change of activity can be presented in several ways. Teachers may hand out guidelines with information about behaviors that are of sufficient generality that they apply irrespective of the class activity. Specific guidelines for the day's activities may be posted conspicuously. Even more specific information may be posted at different "stations" with guidelines for organization and use of equipment. For example, a technique we have found useful is to post the day's first activity and the organizational pattern necessary to get it started in a conspicuous place near where students enter the gym. If the class has already been taught a concept of starting time, the

teacher can expect that at that starting time the class will be in the organizational pattern necessary to begin the first activity with the shortest possible managerial episode.

Guidelines for appropriate behavior can be similarly developed. They need to be spelled out clearly, posted conspicuously, and, at the outset, referred to often so that students can be cued as to what behavioral roles are expected of them within the context of the activity environment.

Teacher signals can also be learned. Students need to change activities. Some group feedback may need to be given. In order to accomplish this, the attention of the group needs to be engaged. A signal for attention should be taught with the goal of emitting it only once and having the shortest possible amount of time lapse between its emission and the accomplishment of the goal, be it the attention of the group or the changing of activities.

It should be mentioned here, although it will be referred to in greater detail in the following sections, that we are always cognizant of the three-termed contingency for learning. Rules, prompts, and other antecedent variables will be of little use if they are not tied specifically and contingently to student behavior and if they are not followed by consequences that support or desist the behaviors according to the general plan. Don't expect to post class rules and suddenly turn chaos into order. The process of learning is seldom immediate and in any case will not occur unless the other aspects of the three-termed contingency are attended to.

THE USE OF GAMES AND CONTRACTS FOR MANAGEMENT

Often a class is so disruptive that it needs to be turned around quickly. Such a situation calls for the use of a formal, systematic program for teaching proper organization and appropriate behavior patterns. The following is a management game used in a study with student teachers at the junior high level.[1] Baseline observations indicated that an mordinate amount of time was being spent in management, mean times as high as 2:30 per episode, with a mean of 4-6 managerial behaviors occurring in each episode. Game contingencies were developed and variable amounts of "free time" could be earned by (1) all students being in assigned places and attentive by the class starting time, (2) all students being attentive to teacher within 5 seconds of the attention signal, and (3) all students completing organizational changes within 20 seconds of the go signal. This was a group contingency and all students had to be behaving accordingly if the free time was to be earned. Free time was accumulated and used once per week for activities that the students had designated as reward activities (a minimum of three activities was always available during free time). With this game format, the mean time per managerial episode was reduced to less than 30 seconds, and the managerial behaviors per episode were reduced to a mean of 1.5 per episode. The total savings in time per class ran as much as 12 minutes, which could then be used for instruction and/or activity.

Another type of good-behavior game was used by McKenzie and Rushall in an age group swimming setting.[2] This game was called "disqualification." Each swimmer was assigned to a team. Any swimmer resting between work units could disqualify any other swimmer in the same lane. Swimmers could be disqualified for (1) unnecessary stopping, (2) not pushing off, (3) not swimming in, (4) changing stroke, or (5) not following the rules of the game. As you can see, this game was designed to promote appropriate workout behaviors. To

disqualify a swimmer, another swimmer had to (1) see the behavior, (2) notify the swimmer why he was disqualified, and (3) write a small *d* in the swimmer's unit space on the training program board. The team with the fewest *d*'s won the game each day and earned the rewards, which were small and mostly humorous. The number of inappropriate target behaviors was reduced dramatically through this game format.

We have used a different type of behavior game with great success at the elementary level.[3,4] This is a far more standard behavior game in the sense that all teams may win, competing against a behavioral standard rather than one another. In this game format the procedure is to (1) post rules and explain them clearly (these are the appropriate and inappropriate behaviors), (2) divide the class into teams, (3) set a criterion for winning the game, (4) program a cassette tape so that a loud noise occurs at a variable time interval, (5) check each team for the target behaviors whenever the sound occurs, (6) praise each team that earns a point and tell each team that does not why it did not, and (7) keep account of the points so that rewards may be administered. Rewards in this format have always been extra gym time to engage in activities chosen by the students as favored activities, a simple application of what is now generally referred to as the "Premack Principle."

All research indicates that behavior games such as the one just outlined can be almost immediately effective in dramatically increasing rates of appropriate behavior. The games can be a group contingency, small group contingency (teams), or even individual student contingency, although the games get progressively more difficult to administer as one moves toward individual contingencies. We have found that with four to six squads, small group contingencies can be administered with no more than 10 seconds spent each time a preprogrammed noise signal goes off. For those of you who remember your beginning psychology, you will have noticed that the variable timing feature is a simple variable interval schedule of reinforcement, well known for its ability to produce persistent rates of response. We normally program four to six tapes, trying to reduce the number of noise-checks as the game progresses (stretching the interval on the variable interval schedule). We have also found with amazing regularity that students will usually behave in a manner so that the criterion standard is met, i.e., if you raise or lower the criterion, students will raise or lower their behavior to meet that criterion.

A good-behavior game can also be accomplished in the form of a behavior contract. A behavior contract lists, for the class or individual student, the behaviors that are acceptable or unacceptable and the rewards to be earned for fulfilling the contract. The contract is jointly agreed to by the student and teacher (and occasionally by the parent and/or administrator) and signed by each party. Records of student behavior are kept and the contracted rewards (or punishments) are administered according to the predetermined schedule.

THE USE OF TEACHER REACTIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

We are not trying to avoid the fact that teachers do react in negative manners to inappropriate behaviors and that this form of teaching, which we call a *desist*, is often necessary. The common scenario in the gym is for a student to emit a behavior that interferes with the learning objectives and the behavior is followed quickly by a "be quiet," "stop that," or sometimes just a good, hard glare. This daily drama puts many teachers into negative interactive roles vis-à-vis their students: they become hard-nosed disciplinarians. The desist is a useful

management technique, but it should be used infrequently and dispassionately. Unfortunately, in most teaching situations we have found its use to be both highly frequent and too often accompanied by more than a bit of passion. There is no doubt that mean time per managerial episode and appropriate student behavior can be taught through coercion and punishment. That this can be done does not mean that it should be done.

In order to reduce the tensions and antagonisms that coercion and punishment generate, an alternative for the teacher is to utilize praise and approval to encourage the frequency of effective organization and appropriate behaviors when they occur. Basically, we are suggesting that teachers pay attention frequently to students who organize quickly and behave well and that conversely they reduce the frequency with which they attend to students who organize slowly and misbehave.

Praise and approval in the form of teacher verbal/nonverbal behavior has been employed more extensively than any other technique to improve classroom management. The effectiveness of positive teacher reactions for improving appropriate student behavior seems to hold irrespective of most subject characteristics, such as age, sex, ability, and personality.[5,6] Teacher approval contingent upon the emission of targeted managerial student behaviors will gradually increase the frequency of these behaviors. The strategy will, in the longer run, yield much greater dividends than emphasizing student misbehavior. Teacher approval, of course, can and should also be used for interacting with students contingent on a host of desirable school and nonschool factors.

Praise should be given consistently and frequently at the outset. The quickest way to increase a target behavior is to praise it consistently and frequently. The consistency should always be present; the frequency can be reduced gradually so that intermittent and finally occasional praise will suffice to maintain the behavior at desirable strength. Inconsistent teacher reactions will produce inconsistent student behavior. This fact cannot be avoided.

One of the most important variables affecting the reinforcement quality of approval is the perceived sincerity of that approval. To establish credibility of approval with students, it is wise to approve those behaviors that the student would consider important. One of the best ways to determine this is to watch students to see the kinds of activities in which they best like to engage. If a student likes to play basketball and his strength is rebounding, initially focus your praise on this behavior, and you are on your way to having the student perceive the approval as sincere. Another criterion for sincerity is to make sure that the approval is commensurate with the performance of the student. An excellent guideline here is to specificity and timing of the feedback. The frequency of the desired student behavior can be strengthened if the teacher's feedback is specific and immediate. This is not meant to imply that summary statements of praise to students at the end of class have no positive effect. The more praise statements the better. But the efficacy of the specificity and immediacy implies that the teacher really is attending to the specific behavior of the student and avoids what has been called the "global good."

Sincerity will be viewed with suspicion if praise statements are redundant. Variety is not only the spice of life but an excellent ingredient to improve the effect of praise statements. Variety refers not only to the verbal content of the praise statement but also to the actual flamboyance of the approval. Students will be skeptical of approval that is gratuitous or extreme. Repeated use of terms that imply that the student's performance is the very best you have ever seen eventually conveys the impression of carelessness and insincerity in the praise.

Recent research on student teachers[2, 9, 10, 11] suggests that rates of positive teacher reactions are very low and that negative reactions are consistently high. These same studies indicate that these trends can be reversed by a number of intervention techniques: there is no longer any doubt that a teacher's basic interaction style can be changed quickly and dramatically.

A word or two needs to be said regarding negative teacher reactions. Teacher verbal and nonverbal punishment seems to be almost a natural tool for classroom control. It is used often because it works quickly, and the fact that it works quickly tends to reinforce its use by the teacher. Some evidence, however, indicates that teacher punishment reactions may have the tendency to increase the frequency of student misbehavior.[12] Regardless of the behavioral outcome, the frequent use of punishment usually results in an atmosphere of fear and coercion. This need not be. Punishment can be delivered usefully when the need arises without the unwanted side effects. If a negative reaction is used to desist a behavior, it must be used dispassionately, i.e., the student must know that it is the behavior that is being desisted and that the punishment does not imply a lack of worth in the student. Individual behavior contracts can build in aversive consequences as easily as positive ones. In this way the punishment is administered merely as a fulfillment of the agreed upon contract and accomplishes the desist without the side effects of antagonism and fear.

Another form of punishment that has shown to be effective is *time-out*, the removal of the student from all potential sources of reinforcement for a specified time period. It does not include sitting a student in a corner where he can be ridiculed by other students. The time-out area should be apart from other students visually and physically and devoid of potentially positive consequences. A caution is useful here. The concept of time-out assumes that the activity from which the student is removed is more reinforcing than the time-out space. One sometimes finds a student for whom this is not true, who will misbehave in physical education in order to escape to the time-out space.

Another strategy for reducing misbehavior is for the teacher simply to ignore it. Behaviorally, this technique is referred to as *extinction*. Like most behavioral techniques, extinction must be consistent if it is to be effective. If you set out to extinguish a behavior through ignoring it and then occasionally pay attention to it, you are more likely to strengthen it than desist it.

Some behavior cannot be ignored, nor is there time to write contracts—not when one student is about to do another in. A punishing desist should be given quickly and strongly, and must indicate to the student what behavior has been desisted. If this can be accomplished without getting angry, then it is a useful management technique. One of the ways in which teachers can help themselves is to list those student behaviors that they will ignore, those that they will praise, and those that require an immediate desist. This list can act as a prompt for the teacher as he attempts to become consistent in interacting with students.

For effective classroom management, a teacher has several methods from which to choose, but regardless of which methods or combination of methods chosen, the guidelines of consistency, specificity, sincerity, immediacy, and variety of teacher reactions should be followed. Ideally, teacher behavior should be used as an informal and natural managerial technique. However, many times a teacher may start with the informal approach and then have to switch to a formal method, such as a behavior game, in order to accomplish goals quickly. Once behavior is learned, the goal should be to gradually move back to the informal techniques.

Whatever management technique is chosen will usually yield better results than simply attending to student mistakes and reacting negatively until the point is reached where the teacher blows up. The less time we spend in managing our students, the more time will be left for learning. Positive discipline is better than negative discipline. These techniques can be learned by preservice teachers. The evidence is abundant that they work. They deserve to be included as skills in professional preparation programs.

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EMPLOYMENT PROSPECTS FOR THE PHYSICAL EDUCATOR

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Not since the Great Depression of the 1930s has the employment picture for teachers been as grim as we find it today. Albert Shanker, president of the American Federation of Teachers, estimates that 250,000 persons trained as teachers cannot currently find teaching positions.[1] In addition, Shanker believes that the situation will grow worse. On NBC's hour-long commentary show "Speaking Freely," he said, "The way things are going now, by the end of this decade there may be one unemployed teacher for every one who's employed."[2] Since Shanker represents the largest labor union of teachers in the country, his estimates on current and future unemployment for teachers might be suspect. However, a recent article in *Time* states, "Around the country, there are far more teachers than jobs; 107,000 teacher-graduates could not find academic posts last year."[3]

Although the current unemployment estimates cited appear to be at variance, the inclusion or exclusion of different subpopulations of the teaching corps could bring these two estimates into closer harmony. In any event, it appears safe to say that a large number of prepared teachers cannot currently find employment. As far as future employment projections are concerned, the Center for Advanced Computation, based on an analysis of data supplied by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, appears to be in substantial agreement with Shanker's view, namely, that there will be a significant oversupply of teachers in the years ahead.[4]

At this point one might be tempted to ask, What has happened? How could the job picture for teachers have changed so radically, and what are the implications for the profession of physical education? As with most difficult questions, the answers are rarely simple or wholly satisfactory; however, an analysis of recent societal trends might answer some of our questions and, more important, suggest courses of action that might minimize the negative impact of the employment crisis on our profession.

SOCIETAL TRENDS

Since employment is a function of the social dynamics of a society, an examination of socioeconomic trends of the United States appears to be a logical starting point in our attempt to come to grips with the dimensions and implications of the current job crisis for teachers in general and physical educators in particular. Specifically, it appears that the dynamics of population and economics have had the greatest effect on the employment picture of teachers in recent years. To a lesser degree political intervention has also had a differential effect on the problem of teacher employment.

Population Dynamics

More than any other single factor the demographics operating in this country over the last 25 years have affected the current job crisis in our profession. In the late 1940s and early 1950s, this country experienced an unprecedented rise in the birth rate. This "baby boom" had an immediate and progres-

sive effect on the educational enterprise of this country, an effect that is still being felt. But from the perspective of 1975, the dynamics set in motion at the time of the baby boom are now seriously undermining the physical educator's (particularly the recent graduate's) chances of finding employment in teaching.

More specifically, the baby boom produced an urgency on the part of the educational establishment to build schools and to train and hire teachers. During this frantic period, teacher-training institutions expanded enrollments tremendously, and even with all burners working, they were still hard pressed to meet the demands for qualified teachers. It was during the early and mid-1960s, the period of peak demand, that the federal government began to take a more active part in helping teacher-training institutions prepare teachers. The National Teachers Corps probably represented the most overt example of federal involvement in attempting to close the gap between supply and demand for teachers during this period.

Unfortunately about midway through this unprecedented growth period there was an ominous, yet largely ignored, turnaround in the population dynamics of the country: the baby boom was over. The evidence also showed that the end of the boom was not to be followed by a normalization of the birthrate but suggested a rather precipitous reduction in the birthrate nationwide, a reduction continuing up to the present day. According to a recent United Nations report, "population growth in the United States is now below 1 percent a year and approaching *zero*."[5]

Figure 1 graphically represents the population dynamics referred to above. Based on live births per 1,000 population from 1944 to 1974 one can readily verify the boom period followed by a relatively precipitous drop in live births per 1,000 population over the last seventeen years. Figure 2, on the other hand,

Figure 1. Live Births per 1,000 Population

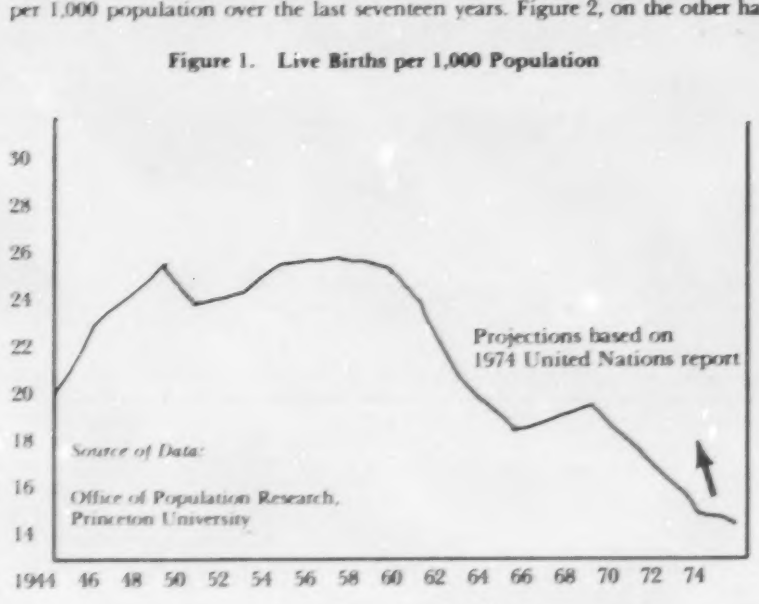
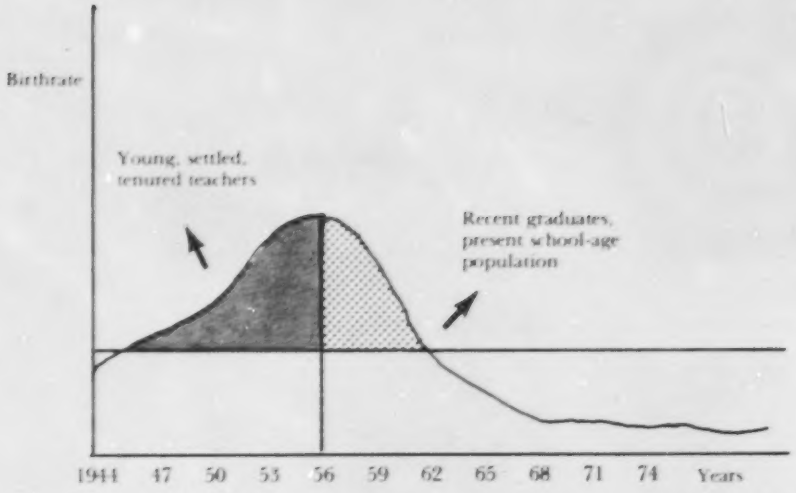


Figure 2. Representation: Population by Date of Birth


Birthrate
Young, settled, tenured teachers
Recent graduates, present school-age population
1944 47 50 53 56 59 62 65 68 71 74 Years

suggests the effects the interaction of the birth curve has had and continues to have on the employment picture of teachers, particularly tomorrow's teacher. Also implied in Figure 2 is the suggestion that the population dynamics set in motion during recent decades will continue to depress the job market for teachers for the foreseeable future.

Thus, to summarize the effects of population dynamics on the current job crisis in physical education, we see that supply has obviously run ahead of demand. Since supply-demand relationships govern job outlook, the job prospects for the physical educator are poor. Could this situation have been anticipated? The answer appears to be yes, for the evidence was there for all to see. However, for a host of reasons, some of them self-serving, the evidence was generally ignored.

While the recent demographic changes in the United States are sufficient to cause a depressed job market for physical educators, there is yet another recent societal trend that has acted to compound the problem.

Economics

It is obvious even to the most casual observer that job prospects and the general health of the economy are interrelated. In times of strong economic growth the job prospects, particularly for the college educated, are bright. When there is an economic downturn jobs become scarce.

As we all know, the current economic situation nationwide is bleak and growing worse. Fortunately, economic conditions are more cyclical over the short term and responsive to a greater or lesser extent to external controls. Nev-

ertheless, it appears that for the present and near future, we can expect the economic conditions of the nation to continue to exert a negative force on job prospects for teachers. Thus, if the population dynamics of recent decades are the principal factor contributing to the current depressed job market for the physical educator, then, most assuredly, the economic realities of the past few years are compounding the problem even further.

For the purpose of clarification, the following examples suggest how economic conditions have influenced the current job market for teachers:

1. Federal and local governments have cut back on funds previously earmarked for education.
2. Local school boards have tightened their belts by reducing staff and services.
3. Potential retirees have tended to postpone retirement as a hedge against inflation.
4. Potential attrition (other than retirements) out of teaching has slowed.
5. In the struggle to balance family budgets, housewives who were once teachers have returned to the schools to resume their teaching careers.
6. Professionals (nonteachers) affected by the initial economic downturn of a few years ago have sought and gained employment as teachers.

Undoubtedly, there exists a host of other factors also contributing to the current job crisis in teaching that could be examined under the rubric of societal trends, but it appears that the two discussed above are of sufficient import to account for the bulk of the problem, a problem that has been building and is just now being felt most severely.

WHAT CAN BE DONE

At this point, one might naturally ask, What can be done? As was stated earlier, answers to complex questions are rarely simple or wholly satisfactory. Nevertheless, there are answers, and in this we should take heart. True, we cannot individually or collectively, as a profession, alter the socioeconomic realities of our times. However, within these realities there is much that might be done to minimize the negative impact of the employment crisis on today's young unemployed physical educator and the profession of physical education in general.

At the outset let us emphasize that there is no reason to believe or evidence to support the position that the dearth of jobs in traditional physical education settings (teacher-coach, K-12) is a cyclical condition, i.e., that within a few years conditions will reverse themselves and large numbers of young graduates will once again find relatively easy access to traditional jobs in physical education. Although the cyclical view of things is comforting, the evidence strongly suggests that this type of reversal will not occur, if for no other reason than the implications of the low birthrate referred to earlier.

Yet, working within the realities of the socioeconomic trends outlined earlier, it appears that if an answer to the present employment dilemma exists, it will be found in the direction of nontraditional preparation for nontraditional careers in physical education. In short, one will have to be nontraditional as to the focus, specifics, and quality of his professional preparation. Obviously paralleling this nontraditional profile of the young physical educator of the future would be corresponding nontraditional preparation offered by today's professional training institutions.

Nontraditional is a relative concept, but for the purpose of clarity, it re-

presents viable types of preparation that will increase one's chances of gaining satisfying employment as a physical educator in the years ahead. In meeting the need for alternative types of career preparation the profession of physical education will take a positive step toward insuring its own viability in the years to come.

Employment Prospects

Industry

In a recent report given by T. Edward Hollander of the State Department of Education before the Executive Committee of the Association of Colleges and Universities of New York, it was indicated that if institutions of higher education are to remain viable in the years ahead they will have to "seek out new populations to serve."[4] In short, they will have to become in some ways nontraditional. In the same sense, and for many of the same reasons, physical educators will also have to seek out new populations to serve if they are to remain professionally solvent in the years to come.

It would appear that industry comprises a population that can be served and served well by young professionals who have the interest, motivation, and training to work in this setting. Many of us are already aware that physical education specialists work in industrial settings, and we do not mean on the assembly line but rather in gymnasiums, physical fitness laboratories, and counseling offices. Obviously, management, for a host of reasons, has made the decision that such programs are good for employee health and morale and therefore indirectly good for business.

In a recent interview conducted with Lawrence Bjurstrom, "an industry physical educator" currently working for the New York State Department of Education, he expressed a belief in a significant future for the physical educator who possesses the preparation and desire to work in the industrial setting. He also indicated that many of the 138 major corporations represented at last year's 2nd Annual Meeting on Fitness in Business and Industry (an annual event sponsored by the President's Council on Physical Fitness) were having difficulty finding qualified people to fill existing positions.[7] The view that the industrial setting might serve as a significant target population for tomorrow's physical educator is also given additional credence by the report that Boston University's Department of Physical Education has developed a special program for majors desiring to work in an industrial setting as fitness specialists. No doubt, we will be hearing more about this and other similiar programs in the near future.

Thus, it would appear that the industrial setting holds some promise as a alternative source of future employment for a significant number of physical educators, in addition to providing the profession with an opportunity to maintain its own vitality. While it is not the purpose of this paper to describe in detail the alternative career discussed above, the following outline should provide a general idea of the type of professional preparation needed:

Focus	*Specifics*	*Quality*
industry	exercise physiology	advanced degree
	physical fitness	appropriate internships
	heart disease intervention	
	industrial recreation	
	administration	
	counseling	

Health clubs and health spas, although presenting a somewhat different career from that in industry, offer the physical educator another exciting possibility generally ignored heretofore. These businesses have been capitalizing on the ground swell of interest in fitness and health as well as physical education in general. Unfortunately, there has been a large amount of quackery and fast-buckism associated with these ventures. However, with the rise of the consumer advocacy movement and resultant consumer protection legislation, the pressure is building for these businesses to legitimize themselves, particularly with respect to the hiring and retention of qualified personnel. The more legitimate clubs have already taken steps to correct earlier abuses, and the others will either have to conform or risk going out of business. Thus, it would appear that the health club offers yet another career opportunity for the qualified physical educator. It would seem that the type of prerequisite training needed to work effectively in this career option would be very similar to that outlined above.

Older Adults

Older adults appear to be yet another potential target population for the physical educator of tomorrow. Here again the population dynamics suggest that the age of the American public is moving to the right on the age continuum. In short, we now have seen and will continue to see the percentage of older people in this country increase. This reality, along with the political pressure that this significant portion of the American population will bring to bear on the various legislative bodies, suggests that all types of services will be increased to this group. Educational and recreational services and improved medical and custodial care will be part of the larger package of goods and services offered to these individuals. Perhaps the type of prerequisite training that might prepare the physical educator to work with this important group would be:

Focus	*Specifics*	*Quality*
older adults	physical fitness recreational activities sport instruction adaptive exercise	bachelor's degree appropriate internship experiences

Prisons

The inmates housed in the nation's federal, state, and local correctional institutions represent still another potential target population that could be served well by the physical educator with a nontraditional dimension to his preparation. Not only is there a national effort under way to humanize penal reform, but the precedent for introducing educators into the prison system already exists. Hollander specifically mentions this population as a potential market for the educational services of the College and University System of the State of New York. Just possibly the type of training that would prepare the physical educator to work in this special setting would be an interdisciplinary major (including physical education, psychology, criminology, and counseling) combined with an internship working with the prison population. While it might take some time before large numbers of physical educators would find themselves working in this setting, the potential in terms of employment is great.

Although it is possible to suggest additional careers that might further help minimize the negative impact of the employment crisis in physical education, the main point being made here is that potentially significant nontraditional careers do exist, but the potential must be recognized and developed by the leadership of the profession before we can hope to turn the current employment picture around.

Day care and continuing education, as well as community education and Albert Shanker's "educare," are other possibilities that come to mind that could afford the physical educator of tomorrow opportunities for gainful employment in the profession, but here again, the emphasis, as well as the preparation, would have to be nontraditional.

K-12

It would be remiss to conclude this paper without commenting on the employment prospects for the K-12 specialists. For those who because of previous orientation strongly desire to work in the K-12 setting (it is assumed that a large proportion of our current majors fall into this category) jobs will be difficult to come by under any circumstances, again largely because of the low birthrate. Nevertheless, even though this career focus is in a general sense quite traditional, there exist certain focuses within the K-12 setting that will enable some physical educators to find meaningful employment. These individuals will be the ones who have that nontraditional dimension to their professional training.

Focus	*Specifics*	*Quality*
early childhood and elementary	movement education music dance	interdisciplinary appropriate internships
handicapped	physical education for the handicapped	in-depth study internships perhaps certification as a teacher of special education
secondary—teacher-coach (most difficult level to find employment)	self-defense karate, judo	black belt
	dance yoga body awareness	
	outdoor education scuba skiing	Outward Bound national certification
	athletic trainer	national certification
	physical education of the handicapped	same as for elementary

As a footnote to the K-12 focus, it must be underscored that one cannot allow himself to be a cookie-mold replica of the thousands of past graduates who prepared themselves as good generalists (K-12, teacher-coach) capable of handling a wide variety of traditional activities courses. This comment is not meant to demean this conscientious professional group, but the fact remains that the profession is flooded with these traditionalists: as pointed out in Figure 2, these individuals are generally young, certified, and entrenched in the K-12 structure.

SUMMARY

It has often been said that it is darkest before the dawn. In a real sense the profession of physical education is in the early morning darkness with respect to the current employment situation, but perhaps the dawn is just about to emerge. Armed with a sense of urgency about the implications of the current employment crisis and willing to take a more global view of the potential role of the physical educator in modern society, physical education has the opportunity to forge a new and perhaps more meaningful profession in the years ahead, one that has as its mandate a physically educated society. Thus, it is with optimism and a new understanding of Francis Bacon's " . . . adversity is not without comforts and hopes" that I offer the concept of nontraditional physical education as the sunrise for our profession's future.

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A MODEL FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

CHARLES L. MAND
Ohio State University

Two major reasons exist for extending college and university efforts for inservice education to public school teachers. One of these reasons is financial and the other programmatic. It is painfully obvious that zero population

growth will not support educational institutions in the style to which they have been accustomed since World War II. Zero population means that education is not a growth industry, and fewer people mean fewer students, fewer teaching equivalencies, fewer or smaller schools, and eventually fewer faculty. That is a threat to some, but to others an opportunity for innovation and a call for a changing role for universities and faculty. It is not too much different from what occurred to theater owners and the motion picture industry with the advent of television. Initially, many theaters closed, studios shut down, and the death of an industry was predicted. Within a decade, however, theaters had changed their locations and repackaged the product, and the industry has moved to new and improved markets, including markets in television. Although we have no X-rating system to assist our transition, we must find new outlets for our services.

Fortunately, although inadvertently, we have created new markets as a result of planned program changes in teacher preparation. A few years ago, two colleagues and I presented to this same group a paper entitled "The Public School: A Partner in Teacher Preparation."[1] This paper emphasized the absolute need to provide more and earlier field experience for students and to use the talents of the teacher in the school to help prepare prospective teachers. This effort reflected a nationwide move to restructure teacher preparation in the light of an experimental base. Certainly, teacher preparation has moved to the schools for training purposes. We are involved with the teachers in those schools, their problems, and the issues in the school itself. We cannot escape a responsibility to respond to the needs of college students in the schools, the cooperating teachers, and in some respects the issues of schools themselves. If public education represents a continuum including schools and universities, a partnership in responsibility exists also.

Some may suggest that the graduate courses and programs at universities provide the necessary assistance school teachers need to improve job performance. This is not necessarily the case. Frequently, master's programs are minipreparations for doctoral programs. The courses are often research oriented and generally represent a preparation for some future goal rather than a solution to the here and now of classroom problems. In addition, traditional graduate programs are exclusive and do not include or provide for all the teachers working in schools. In effect, we say to many teachers, "You are good enough to teach my child, but not good enough for graduate work." Typical concerns of teachers in Ohio, as determined by the state Department of Education, are shown in Table I.[2]

TABLE I

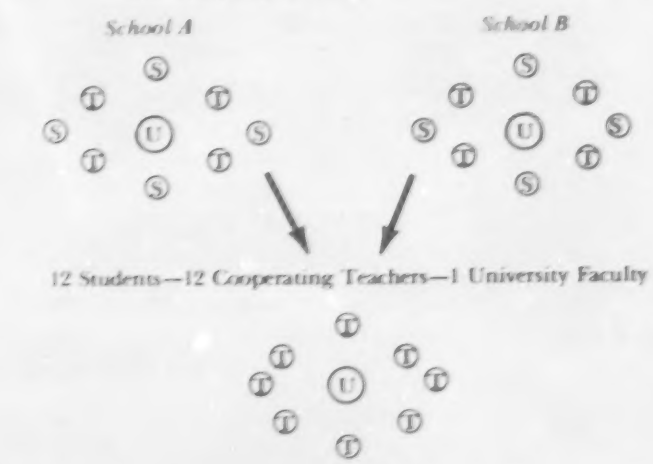
Concerns of Teachers for Additional Training

	Elementary School	*Middle School*	*High School*
	(percent of response)		
All Subject Areas			
Individualized instruction	69	56	48
Differentiated staffing	26	46	18
Use of media materials	45	44	36
Child development	25	24	14

	Elementary School	*Middle School*	*High School*
	(percent of response)		
Curriculum development	32	37	34
Goal setting	58	68	22
Behavioral problems	60	54	41
Reading	76	50	27
Physical Education			
Field-based programs	14	15	17
Handicapped	8	27	10
Girls' competitive sports	13	32	15
Drug abuse	22	29	27
Human sexuality	16	21	27

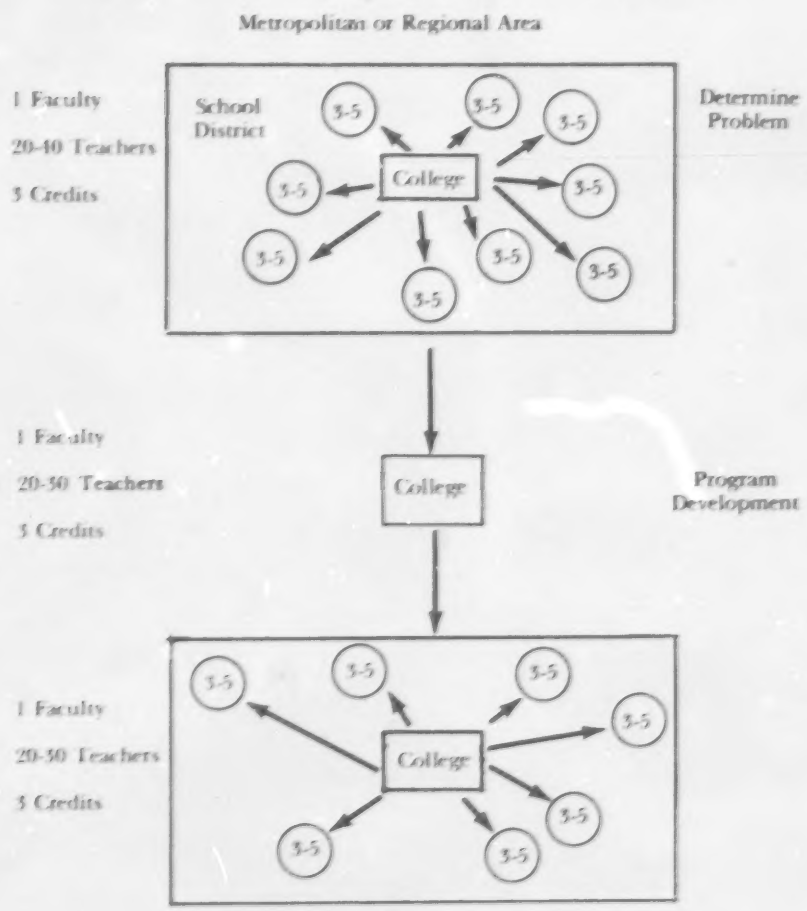
Since there are many thousands of teachers in the state, these percentages represent a substantial clientele. The teachers prefer that these subjects be offered at the school site or at least in a location more central than the university and be presented in short-course or workshop format, emphasizing evening, weekend, and vacation periods of time. Several methods are available to attract teachers to university offerings inclusive of these subjects. One model in operation is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Inservice Education Model.



This model involves freshman students and their cooperating teachers who as part of the early experience program must register for a seminar to discuss this experience with all other teachers and students in the specific school engaged in the process. In a given academic quarter many different schools were involved in early experience and the seminar. Students registered for three undergraduate credits; the cooperating teacher, three graduate credits. The university supervisor travelled from school to school conducting the seminars. A spin-off from this model is that many teachers in separate schools identify a common problem. The supervisor then organizes an additional course to meet this need.

Figure 2. Inservice Education Model—Problem-Program-Proof



The second model as it is entitled involves a faculty member working with several physical education teachers in a variety of schools helping them to identify pertinent problems. The second experience involves bringing the teachers with a common problem together to develop solutions for their schools implementing the newly found solutions and assist in evaluating these efforts. It does not seem possible for professors to survive by waiting for students to come to their class and, if you will, sit at their feet. It is necessary to move into the field and attract people to necessary services.

In conclusion, inservice education not only provides financial salvation but also represents a progressive step in the preparation of teachers.

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AMERICAN HUMANICS AND THE UNIVERSITY: A UNIQUE PARTNERSHIP

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GORDON IMLAY
University of the Pacific

American Humanics is a privately financed organization that has as its purpose the college-level preparation of young people for professional careers with youth organizations. American Humanics seeks to answer the need for the unique preparation in human engineering skills required by professionals working in youth agencies. Its focus is on preparing professionals to work in the YMCA, YWCA, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, and Boys' Clubs and Girls' Clubs. Other potential employers of graduates of the program include Junior Achievement, the Catholic Youth Organization, Jewish Community Centers, and the youth program of the 4-H.

H. Roe Bartle, who in 1948 was an executive with the Kansas City Area Council of the Boy Scouts, is recognized as the organization's founder. Mr. Bartle later became mayor of Kansas City.

American Humanics achieves its goals by entering into partnerships with selected colleges and universities for the training of young people for the youth agency field. The institution offers the academic preparation, and American Humanics provides and finances the cocurricular aspects of the program.

In its first 25 years of operation, American Humanics affiliated with four small, private liberal arts institutions: Mission Valley College, Marshall, Missouri (1948); Salem College, Salem, West Virginia (1953); High Point College, High Point, North Carolina (1960); and Indiana Central College, Indianapolis, Indiana (1965).

A survey of youth agencies in 1971 revealed that graduates of the program were making significant contributions, but the number of graduates was not commensurate with the need for trained professionals. Thus, in the fall of 1971, after consultation with the partner institutions, the American Humanics board of trustees adopted an aggressive plan of geographic expansion that also included assigning a resident administrator to each campus.

Believing in the value of the individual attention given students at private schools of small to medium size, the board of trustees established new partnerships with two West Coast institutions in the fall of 1974: University of the Pacific, Stockton, California, and Pepperdine University, Malibu, California.

The American Humanics resident administrator assigned to each campus is charged with a two-fold responsibility: administration of cocurricular enrichment activities for students in the program and student recruitment. Enrichment activities include field trips, workshops, retreats, counseling, and placement services. Student recruitment involves visiting high schools to acquaint students with the American Humanics program at the resident administrator's institution in hopes of influencing them to enroll. In effect, the resident administrator becomes a member of the institution's admissions staff.

The curriculum for majors in youth agency administration combines the major in recreation with selected course work in business administration and communication arts. Recommended courses include Community Organization and Recreation Services, Recreation in Contemporary Society, Outdoor Recreation, Leadership in Recreation, Administration in Recreation, Practicum in Recreation, Social Psychology, Introduction to Research, Finance, Personnel Management, Composition, Public Speaking, and Group Dynamics. Suggested electives are Prejudice and Racism, Implementation for Social Change, Introduction to Statistics, Introduction to Computer Science, Social Services in the Modern Community, Principles of Economics, and Population Problems.

In addition to the curriculum, a working internship has been discussed. If the working internship is developed, it would allow majors to alternate a work experience at a youth agency with academic training in a five-year course of study.

Professionals and lay volunteers from the youth agency field visit the campus for biweekly workshops. Workshop topics are selected to acquaint the participants with the varied aspects of youth agency work. Ample time is allowed for discussion and questioning of the speakers.

Field trips to youth agencies for the freshmen and sophomores are designed to provide a broad view of the various types of youth agencies. Juniors and seniors select the agencies they wish to visit. Often special conferences or training sessions are a part of the field trip experiences of juniors and seniors. The upper-class students can concentrate on particular programs and priorities of selected agencies and spend time with the individuals responsible for implementing them.

Student services include club activities, counseling, a loan fund, and placement.

Each affiliated campus offers some type of club activities. The Humanics Executives' Club provides an opportunity for idea and experience exchange among students from various agency backgrounds and geographic sections of the country. It also becomes a leadership laboratory as students serve as chairpersons or event directors of various projects. The club is a vehicle for student input for the workshop and field trip programs. Student reception and recruitment are other functions of the club.

The resident administrator provides personal and career counseling to students who are interested in youth work or to others within the department.

American Humanics provides a loan fund for needy students. These students may borrow up to full tuition at a 4 percent interest rate; repayment does not begin until six months after graduation.

Over the past 25 years, American Humanics has been successful in placing nearly 800 students in youth agency programs. Since there are nearly 1,800 new career opportunities each year in the youth agency field, there is still ample opportunity to expand through programs with other schools. Further expansion will no doubt be based on geographic location and an ability for universities and colleges to provide individual attention to students. Any school interested in the program should consult: Mr. Jack Armstrong, Executive Director, American Humanics, 912 Baltimore Avenue, Kansas City, Missouri 64105.

AQUATIC SPECIALIST

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California State University at Long Beach

The Aquatic Specialist Program is divided into four areas:

1. Physical Education Core
2. Aquatic Core
3. Aquatic Specialist
4. Aquatic Administrator

Physical Education Core

1. Introduction to Physical Education
2. Kinesiology
3. Physiology of Exercise
4. Measurement and Evaluation
5. Motor Learning

Aquatic Core

1. Aquatic Activities
2. Supervision of Aquatic Activities
3. Organization and Administration of Aquatic Programs
4. Management of Aquatic Facilities
5. First Aid Instructor
6. Seminar in Aquatics
7. Summer Experience (Pool)
8. Summer Experience (Beach or Surf)
9. Summer Experience (Supervision or Administration)
10. Supervised Field Work

Aquatic Specialist

1. Swimming
2. Lifeguarding and Marine Safety
3. Competitive Swimming
4. Water Polo
5. Synchronized Swimming
6. Springboard Diving
7. Swimming for the Handicapped
8. Skin and Scuba Diving
9. Small Craft and Open Water Activity

Aquatic Administrator

1. Completion of total program
2. Graduate Program in Aquatic Management

COMMERCIAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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University of Utah

The general public has recently been buried by an avalanche of spas, fitness parlors, health clubs, etc. This phenomena has caused some institutions of higher learning, and the University of Utah in particular, to examine the relationship of the fitness industry to the discipline of education.

Since we in education are currently engrossed in the accountability and relevance of programs, it seems highly appropriate that educational institutions attempt to supplement industries that cater to the needs or whims of our society. The health spa industry is just such an example. We at the University of Utah are thoroughly convinced that health spas, or their equivalent, are a permanent fixture in our society. This industry's structure may be altered, but the commodity it is marketing, fitness, is a definite contemporary need.

The health spa industry is in want of the knowledge of the academic community for a variety of reasons.

1. In the past health spas have suffered from an image of charlatanism. Many individuals have felt that the companies were solely interested in monetary profit and not even remotely concerned with health or fitness.
2. The industry lacks up-to-date research findings in the areas of equipment, programming, and even business principles.
3. There has been insufficient training of both the managerial and instructional staffs of many of these businesses.
4. There has been a general, overall lack of knowledge concerning the commodity being marketed by both the employees of the industry and the lay public.

For these reasons, the University of Utah's College of Health has instituted within its undergraduate curriculum a commercial physical education track, a four-year program with a minor in business and a major in physical education.

This track offers courses from business, health, physical therapy, leisure studies, and physical education.

In the business minor, courses totaling 30 hours of credit are selected from: Elementary Accounting, Automated Business Information Systems, Programming, Business Finance, Risk and Insurance, Introduction to Business, Principles of Management, Small Business Management, Business Law, Business Society and the Individual, Principles of Marketing, Introduction to Advertising, Sales Management Decisions, and Sales Management Problems.

In the physical education major, 19 hours are selected from: Human Relations and Group Development, Personal Health Problems, Health Care in the U.S, Fundamentals of Nutrition, Physical Therapy Procedures, and Fundamentals of Speaking; 6 hours from: Commercial Recreation, Commercial Recreation Concepts and Dynamics, and Seminar in Commercial Recreation Problems; and 19 hours from: Basic Physical Fitness, Weight Training, Posture Conditioning, Exercise for Fitness, Movement Fundamentals, Teaching Exercise and Body Mechanics, Water Safety, Swimming Activities, and Pool Management, Adult Fitness, Training Room Procedures, Supervised Laboratory Experience, Physical Education for the Handicapped, Tests and Measurements, Individual Study, Scientific Surveys of Athletic Injuries, Adult Fitness Workshop, and Psychology of Motor Learning.

Upon finishing the track, a student will receive a BS from the College of Health, thus being recognized as a knowledgeable fitness instructor who can offer professional skills to the people served by the health spa industry.

In conjunction with the four-year commercial physical education track, the University of Utah also offers a certification program for individuals who are already employed in the health spa industry. The certification program has two phases: Phase I—correspondence course and Phase II—workshop. The correspondence course is offered through the Division of Continuing Education at the University of Utah and contains ten lessons based on *Adult Physical Fitness* by Butler and Henschen (1974). The course includes chapters concerning anatomy, exercise physiology, cardiovascular disease, kinesiology, posture, diet and nutrition, therapeutic exercise, first aid, and fitness testing and programming.

Coupled with the correspondence course, to complete the certification requirements, is a workshop on adult fitness. This workshop is offered at the University of Utah once per year and then is offered approximately four times a year at various locations in the United States. The staff for these workshops are University of Utah faculty members who are experts in tests and measurements, kinesiology, physical therapy, exercise and conditioning, and diet and nutrition. During these workshops, the staff attempts to introduce the latest in equipment, theory, and research associated with adult fitness. The information disseminated allows health spa industry employees the opportunity to stay abreast of the current knowledge held by the academic community.

In summary, by offering both a four-year curriculum and a certification program, the University of Utah has formulated a package of education that is innovative and services a need of the society. Upon completion of either of the programs, a person will be equipped to provide expert instruction in adult fitness.

PREPARATION OF WOMAN COACHES

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Arizona State University

The realistic or practical approach to professional preparation may seem to be focused on the development of courses designed for the specific training of the athlete in the various skills and strategies of the sport. In this day and time, however, when literally the whole world is watching the caliber of sport performance of women, learning the art of coaching by women assumes tremendous significance.

The future of women in sport will depend upon the emphasis of those who develop the guidelines serving as the basis of courses and experiences that will provide the framework for knowledges and skills needed by coaches. It will behoove those who are building a specialized curriculum also to build into it the best of the past value system, together with the relevant standards of the here and now, for this *new* breed of competition for girls and women. The purpose of professional preparation programs in coaching will be focused primarily on the preparation of the high school and college coach. It would be erroneous not to assume that some coaches will move to the professional ranks and/or to coaching selected teams for national and international levels of competition. The basic value system and wholesome competition and the scientific training of the coaches of the future thus will largely determine the quality of competitive programs, be they public school, college, or those outside of educational institutions.

The purpose of this paper is to suggest areas of concentration that might be woven into the institutional curricular model to insure preparation of qualified personnel.

Personal Preparation

While personal preparation may be considered as the all-encompassing goal, this is meant to refer to knowledge and skills gained as a student athlete prior to and during the college years. It is unfortunate that to date many young women who have skills and interest in sport have had limited opportunities for participation in highly competitive situations. To be lacking in such experiences leaves a real void that must be filled if the coach is to understand the true essence of sport.

Technical Core

Building on the personal skills the athlete acquired in prior competitive situations, a college program should provide ample opportunity to develop and test abilities against one's own peers and in events with competitors from other institutions. Various levels of instruction in the skills and strategies of sport from beginning through advanced need to be offered. It may be argued that the potential coach of a sport does not necessarily need to be a truly outstanding performer, but she surely must have enough skill to demonstrate fundamentals and to be able to teach athletes who perform at an advanced level of competence.

Professional Preparation

As important as it is for the potential coach to have a background of performance in her selected areas of interest, her eventual success will probably depend upon her ability to analyze performance, to motivate participants, and to be able to mold individual players into a team. In addition, she must have a knowledge of the conditioning and training techniques and of the skills of management and organization. Each of these areas may constitute modules of specific course content in physiology of exercise, kinesiology, psychology of coaching, athletic training, and administration of athletic programs. It is not enough to use the lecture and discussion methods, for there should be laboratory experiences associated with all courses. Such opportunities would be found in serving as an assistant to the coach of a high school or college team or in volunteering to coach a team for a Y, church, or playground league. Other experiences may be found in recreational clubs, such as tennis or swimming, or sport camps. In most of these situations, supervision may be by an experienced coach or as an extension of the student teaching experience. It is to be hoped that the beginning coach will also have the opportunity to develop some understanding of how sport has come to play such a significant role in our culture. That individual also needs to recognize the responsibilities that must be assumed by leaders in the sport world if participation in sport is to be physically and psychologically beneficial to the player.

Career Opportunities

It is to be expected that with the ever increasing chances for competitive experiences, careers in coaching will become more attractive for young women. It is important, however, to realize that every athlete will not be interested nor will every athlete be a good coach; also, physical education majors constitute only one source of potential coaches. Young women with majors in fields other than physical education who have experience, interest in a sport, and the desire to develop a second specialization may have the potential for becoming good coaches in their chosen sport. A guidance program to be effective will assist the student to assess her capabilities, experiences as a sportswoman, and interest in preparing herself for a career that will be rigorous in its demands and pressures.

The degree of specialization in a sport or sports will depend upon the options available at each institution. Curriculum planners will need to be aware of the placement opportunities in their particular locale. Some coaches seeking high school positions most likely will find that they would be responsible for only one sport; others, particularly in smaller schools, would be expected to coach two or three teams. At the college level, the situation is somewhat different. Since a variety of organizational patterns for intercollegiate athletics for women are evolving, woman teachers of physical education are rather suddenly faced with an added or changed responsibility for coaching; on the other hand, sport specialists are being hired on a part-time basis to coach only in their sport. Coaches also find numerous positions with various kinds of sport clubs, health spas, sport camps, and recreation programs.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS IN ATHLETIC TRAINING

GARY DELFORGE
University of Arizona

During the past few years concern about the high incidence of interschool athletic injuries in the United States has grown considerably. Although a standardized, nationwide athletic injury reporting system is yet to be implemented, provincial injury studies conducted in various geographical areas of the country appear to lend credence to this concern. While discrepancies exist in the reported number of interschool athletic injuries per year, most reports place the incidence occurring on a national level in the hundreds of thousands. An average of approximately twenty deaths per year resulting from interschool football alone is reported.

Currently available injury data and a high suspicion that many athletic injuries are unrecognized and thus not reported have led to several significant developments throughout the United States. A recent ABC national television show suggested that parents have become more critical of their high school coaches' qualifications to render proper health care to their sons and daughters. School administrators are becoming more aware of their moral and legal responsibilities to provide good health care for their school's athletes. Perhaps most significant is the fact that legislation has been introduced that dramatically involves the federal government in efforts to improve the health care of our nation's athletes. In 1972, Congressman Ronald Dellums of California authored and sponsored a bill that would have required all educational institutions engaged in interschool athletic competition to employ qualified athletic trainers. Known as the Athletic Care Act, this bill was proposed as an amendment to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. An amendment to the Higher Education Act of 1965 would have made employment of qualified athletic trainers mandatory at the college and university level.

Partially due to a lack of reliable injury data, the Dellums bill gave way to a measure proposed by Congressman Edwin Forsyth of New Jersey. The Forsyth amendment directed the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to undertake a nationwide study to determine the exact incidence of injuries and deaths occurring in our nation's interschool athletic programs during a twelve-month period. As a result, a National Athletic Injury/Illness Reporting System (NAIRS) was proposed to the United States Office of Education of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. This reporting system is currently being implemented in various geographical areas throughout the United States.

In addition to this legislation, the Occupational Safety and Health Act, which has previously been concerned primarily with safety in industry, is directing greater attention to safety in athletics. The National Consumer Product Safety Commission has expanded its concern to include establishment of standards for the manufacturing of quality protective equipment in athletics. Numerous professional organizations and national committees have greatly expanded their efforts to enhance the health care of interschool athletes. Among these are the American Medical Association's Committee on Medical Aspects of Sports; the American Academy of Orthopedic Surgeons; the NCAA Committee on Competitive Safeguards and Medical Aspects of Sports; the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; and the National Sporting Goods Association.

ROLE OF THE NATIONAL ATHLETIC TRAINERS ASSOCIATION

At a time when concern for the health and safety of interschool athletics is so great, the National Athletic Trainers Association is setting standards for the education and professional preparation of personnel to work in the areas of athletic injury prevention, emergency care, and rehabilitation. Since 1969, the NATA has provided standards and criteria for the development of undergraduate- and graduate-level educational programs in athletic training. To date, a total of thirty undergraduate curricula and two master's-level curricula in colleges and universities throughout the United States have received NATA approval. The number of approved athletic training curricula is increasing steadily as more and more colleges and universities are implementing areas of specialization in athletic training. As a further step toward insuring the professional qualifications of athletic trainers, the NATA instituted certification procedures in 1970. An individual who meets the educational and clinical experience requirements set forth by the NATA is now officially recognized as a Certified Athletic Trainer upon successful completion of a national certification examination.

Undergraduate Program

At the heart of the professional preparation of athletic trainers is the NATA-approved undergraduate curriculum. Although students may major in academic areas of their choice, most athletic training curricula are housed in departments or colleges of health or physical education. Specific undergraduate course work and clinical experience requirements include the following:

1. Anatomy (1 course)
2. Physiology (1 course)
3. Physiology of exercise (1 course)
4. Applied anatomy and kinesiology (1 course)
5. Psychology (2 courses)
6. First aid and safety (1 course)
7. Nutrition (1 course)
8. Remedial exercise (1 course)
9. Personal, community, and school health (1 course)
10. Basic athletic training (1 course)
11. Advanced athletic training (1 course)
12. Laboratory or practical experience in athletic training to include a minimum of 600 total clock hours under the direct supervision of a trainer certified by NATA

In order to be certified as an athletic trainer, graduates of NATA-approved curricula must complete, in addition to the above course work and clinical experience, all academic requirements leading to a secondary-level teaching certificate. Emphasis is thus placed on the preparation of Certified Athletic Trainers who are equally qualified to teach in their major or minor academic areas.

Graduate Certificate Program

Recognizing the responsibility of the National Athletic Trainers Association to give encouragement and guidance to the development of graduate-level educational programs in athletic training, the NATA board of directors created a committee on graduate education in June 1972. This group, functioning as a

subcommittee of the Professional Education Committee, was charged with the responsibility of developing curriculum guidelines that would give direction to colleges and universities interested in developing master's-level programs in athletic training. As a result of the committee's efforts during the first year of existence, curriculum guidelines specifying NATA-required course work and clinical experience were developed.

Graduate-level requirements have been incorporated into what has been identified as the Graduate Certificate Program. Upon completion of this program, students may be awarded a Graduate Certificate in Athletic Training by the National Athletic Trainers Association in recognition of their advanced educational achievements. Awarding of the certificate does not require actual completion of the master's degree or attainment of a secondary school teaching certificate, provided all NATA-required course work and clinical experience are completed. Completion of requirements for both the master's degree and a teaching certificate is, of course, strongly recommended.

Encouragement for the development of graduate-level programs in athletic training is based on the realization that an opportunity should be provided for advanced, in-depth, and concentrated study beyond the baccalaureate level. The Graduate Certificate Program is predicated on sound undergraduate preparation in athletic training and should be considered an extension of professional preparation for those who have completed NATA undergraduate course work and clinical experience requirements. The Graduate Certificate Program is also designed to lead to NATA recognition as a Certified Athletic Trainer for those students who have not yet completed academic requirements at the undergraduate level.

Students accepted into a Graduate Certificate Program must have earned a bachelor's degree from an accredited four-year undergraduate college or university and must satisfy all undergraduate course work and clinical experience requirements. Specific graduate-level course work and clinical experience requirements include the following:

1. Advanced athletic training (2 courses)
2. At least *one* course from among:
   a. Advanced anatomy
   b. Advanced physiology
   c. Advanced physiology of exercise
   d. Advanced kinesiology or applied anatomy
3. Laboratory or practical experience in athletic training to include a minimum of 300 total clock hours under the supervision of a trainer certified by NATA

Suggested graduate-level courses to complete the area of specialization in athletic training include:

1. Corrective or therapeutic exercise
2. Adapted physical education
3. Therapeutic modalities
4. School law
5. Tests and measurements in physical education
6. Pharmacology

University of Arizona Graduate Program

Currently, the University of Arizona is one of two universities in the United States that have an NATA-approved Graduate Certificate Program in Athletic Training. Opportunity for specialization in athletic training exists in the Master of Science program in physical education and the Master of Education programs in physical education and health education. The following required courses represent the core of the area of specialization and are embedded in all master's degree programs:

1. Anatomical Basis of Sports Injuries
2. Recognition of Athletic Injuries
3. Reconditioning of Athletic Injuries
4. Advanced Physiology of Exercise
   or Advanced Kinesiology

To complete the fifteen-unit area of specialization, the student may elect the remainder of his course work from among the following:

1. Nutritional Basis for Sports Performance
2. Laboratory Techniques in Physical Education
3. Assessment of Human Performance
4. Application of Exercise Theory to Sports Performance
5. Research Design in Physical Education
6. Individual Studies in Athletic Training
7. Contemporary Problems in Athletic Training
8. Physical Education and the Law

In addition to the listed course work, graduate students in athletic training at the University of Arizona complete their required 300 hours of clinical experience by working in local high schools. Since 1969, the university has participated in a cooperative program in which graduate students specializing in athletic training are employed as head athletic trainers by local Tucson high schools. Currently twelve of fifteen Tucson high schools are participating in the program. Students are thus provided with a unique opportunity to earn a master's degree with academic specialization in athletic training while gaining valuable experience in a responsible athletic training position. It is felt that the program represents an academically effective blend of pertinent course work and practical experience. To date, 36 students have graduated from the University of Arizona athletic training program: 17 have been placed as head athletic trainers or assistant athletic trainers in colleges and universities, 11 are employed as secondary-level teacher-athletic trainers, and 2 have accepted jobs as assistant athletic trainers with professional football teams.

SUMMARY

If the current concern about and emphasis on improved health care of our nation's interschool athletes continue, the future need for more undergraduate and graduate educational programs in athletic training is clearly evident. The Certified Athletic Trainer has become a truly indispensable member of the major college athletic staff. Indications are that the Certified Athletic Trainer is rapidly becoming looked upon as a necessity rather than a luxury by high school and junior college administrators and coaches.

EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS AS EXPRESSED IN A PHYSICAL EDUCATION LABORATORY SCHOOL AT THE UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT

ROBERT GOBIN
University of Vermont

The physical education professional program at the University of Vermont enrolls approximately 175 students in three program options. A student may elect a 30-credit concentration to prepare for teaching at the elementary school level (K-6) or a 30-credit junior-senior high school (7-12) teaching concentration. In either instance the student is required to elect an 18-credit minor field also. The third option is a 48-credit broad field major that prepares physical education teachers for work in grades K-12 and includes two courses each in health and recreation. Students will not elect a minor with this option.

Students opting for either the secondary or broad field concentrations are required to enroll in a methods course for junior-senior high school teachers. It is here, as juniors in the program, that they will become deeply involved in the Saturday Morning Physical Education Laboratory School program. The course and lab school are offered each semester.

Participants in the program each semester number over 300 and come mostly from the local area, although 39 percent travel a distance of seven to fifty miles each week. In the fall of 1974 we drew enrollments from thirteen different communities. The students are composed chiefly of boys and girls in grades 7-12. A year ago we opened the enrollment to adults and their number now makes up over 20 percent of the total and is growing each semester. Participants are charged a registration fee of $3, which covers the entire family. Each registrant may select and enroll in from one to four elective courses.

The lab school curriculum each semester includes approximately 25 different activities with classes offered at beginner, intermediate, and advanced levels. The program runs for approximately eight Saturdays, with each session beginning at 8 a.m. and scheduled into four 40-minute periods that conclude at 11. The physical education majors enrolled in the methods course are responsible for all program organizational and administrative details including publicity, application processing, staff assignments, student sectioning, facility and equipment checks, opening day plans, etc. Each major will also assume sole responsibility for organizing and teaching two to three different activity classes for the length of the program.

The laboratory school at the University of Vermont is, no doubt, similar in many ways to the organization and administration used at many other institutions. The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to share our experiences in translating contemporary educational philosophy into action within the laboratory school setting.

THE OPEN CLASSROOM

For a number of years now educators have acknowledged the fact that each learner is unique. Ideally, every student enrolled in a physical education activity class is recognized by the teacher as having a unique entry ability, motivation, rate of learning, and learning potential.

We are however painfully aware that this recognition is seldom reflected in either program design or teaching method. Physical educators still design programs in which every student must participate in each activity of the prescribed curriculum. The teaching method will traditionally dictate that all students simultaneously perform the same drill where performance goals are frequently undefined for either the group or individuals.

Scheduling

We decided to [illegible] program that would provide our majors with the opportunity to recognize and respond to individual differences in a manner that would contrast with the traditional program and class noted earlier. The approach has been an elective program that deliberately accents the differences that exist among individuals within each class. Heterogeneity is assured by enrolling students from all grades (7-12), mixing the sexes for coeducational classes, including adult men and women as participants, and absorbing handicapped students where appropriate. The students in any given class will have only one thing in common—a desire to learn that particular sport or activity. The purpose behind this type of scheduling is to create a setting wherein instructors will be forced to experiment with new teaching methodologies as they recognize and respond to the wide range of individual differences within the class. Incidentally, the elective physical education programs now being instituted in many of the public schools tend to produce a similar heterogeneity based upon mixed grade levels and sexes.

Objectives

The most pressing problem that initially confronts the instructors is identification of what they want their students to learn. A related problem is learning how to express these goals in individualized performance or behavioral terms. We believe that helping our instructors acquire skill in defining performance goals serves both their immediate and long-range needs. Each instructor is immediately faced with a multiplicity of goal-related tasks that include surveying the range of student entry status and need, developing realistic performance goals in response to the diverse needs, devising appropriate measures for achieving these ends while at the same time providing for individual rates of learning, and establishing a means for evaluating the outcomes that makes sense to the student, his parents, and the administration. In the long run, we believe that the art of defining individualized performance goals will be required of our graduates not only to facilitate the learning of their students but also to demonstrate accountability for their teacher performance. Communities and administrators are increasingly interested in evaluating teaching performance. The wise teacher will take the lead in defining the criteria by means of which he is evaluated rather than submitting to criteria designed by others.

A technique that we have found useful is to ask that instructors post their lesson plan goals for each class in a place where their students might read and be guided by them. The instructors have been amazed at the interest students take in this information, especially when they see goals for themselves or their group defined.

Teaching Methodologies

When confronted with a widely diverse class enrollment, the first thing that our instructors learn is that traditional methods of teaching are largely inadequate. This is a traumatic experience for them since their natural inclination is to teach classes as they themselves have been taught.

The techniques found most useful to instructors include establishment of groupings within classes, development and use of sequential skill checklists, extensive use of audio-visual aids, and development of student leadership and peer-correction techniques. We maintain a focus on individualized techniques by requiring that no more than half of the class period be devoted to instructor-led large group activities. As instructors gain experience and confidence, we find they tend to make greater and better use of the unstructured time in each period. Experimentation with a variety of techniques demonstrates to the instructor that students are most motivated and productively engaged during free activities when they have realistic goals, meaningful performance feedback, and reinforcement that comes from a measure of success. The instructors also find out something else, occasionally to their sorrow. Since the program is elective and participation is optional, students may react to an uninteresting class either by transferring to another class or by simply not attending future class sessions. This is not an altogether bad situation, since it impresses upon the instructor the need to become responsive to student needs and interests.

Methods of teaching must ultimately be evaluated by measuring the outcomes against the goals. Certainly student interest is one of these goals. We believe however that the ultimate goal for all teachers should be to produce students who are highly motivated, self-directed, problem-solving, lifetime learners. Our guiding efforts with instructors in the Saturday Morning Physical Education Laboratory School are focused toward providing experiences in which their students not only learn activity skills but also learn how to be self-directed lifetime learners.

LEARNING FOR A LIFETIME

Perhaps at no time in our history has there been such a concerned effort to provide educational opportunities for all age groups. Preschool and postschool educational opportunities now abound. An increasing number of adults are now returning to school for a variety of reasons. They may be seeking to improve or change their vocational skills or to broaden their educational horizons more generally. Perhaps they simply have an innate love for learning.

Our challenge was to find a way to impress our laboratory school instructors with these needs. As noted earlier, our hope is to go beyond the single-minded task of training them as teachers. We intend to equip them with the tools and motivation required for a lifetime of learning.

Learning on the Job

Before assigning the student instructors to their two to three different activities as a staffing assignment, we solicit information that identifies their preferences—usually based upon personal skill or mastery. The actual assignment will include some activities of their choice and, in every case, one sport activity

unfamiliar to them (this might include a course in roller skating, BB marksmanship, yoga, roller hockey, bowling, etc.). The purpose behind the latter assignment is to illustrate that if their later public school program is to grow, the instructors must first be willing to research, experiment, and learn with the class.

Inservice Education

A second approach to continuing education involves an opportunity for inservice training. On the Saturday preceding the opening of the lab school we conduct an inservice training program. A select number of student instructors from the previous semester are invited to return for a seminar in one of the activities they had taught. The seminars are generally of a participation type wherein new instructors have the opportunity to try out new sports they will be asked to teach or to get new ideas for instruction in areas already familiar to them. Clinic instructors are asked to share copies of their course plans with those who attend the sessions. We find this an excellent way to identify peer resource personnel for the new instructors. Recently a number of full-time physical education teachers in the area have expressed a desire to participate in a program of this type. Plans are currently under way to expand the inservice day program to include students, university staff, and public school physical educators in the clinic program scheduled for spring 1975.

Learning Continuum

The third major effort to focus attention on learning for a lifetime has led to the inclusion of adults in the Saturday Morning Physical Education Laboratory School. Adults now make up 1/5 of our enrollment, and the number is growing. I personally subscribe to the concept that we should be preparing educators who conceive their role to be the facilitation of learning for all individuals, from cradle to grave. We have added adults to the program for three reasons: (1) to demonstrate to our majors that adults are motivated to learn new skills for many of the same reasons that college students have (improved fitness, recreation, emotional release, etc.), (2) to demonstrate that adults are no more difficult to teach than teenagers (in fact easier), and (3) to impress our students, and future teachers, with the many advantages that come from involving members of the community in the school program.

Our experience with the adults has been fantastic. The instructors have found them to be patient with their mistakes in teaching techniques. The adults have been eager to learn and have volunteered to assist in teaching others in class who are less skilled. Student participants accept their presence quite readily. We have many families that are now taking lessons as a group. It is interesting to note that we initially set aside special classes for adults only. We were complimented when the adult group requested approval for enrollment in any of the classes. They expressed a desire for a greater range of activity options and indicated that the individualized instruction in most classes would not inhibit their enjoyment of a class taken with the younger folks. After the initial classes, most of our instructors feel quite at ease with the adults but are on their toes in preparation and presentation, more so than they may be when the class comprises seventh and eighth graders. (The ultimate compliment came to one of our yoga instructors when a 50-year-old physician called her at the dorm to apologize for missing class and to request the practice assignment for the next week.)

DIFFERENTIAL STAFFING

As the Saturday Morning Physical Education Laboratory School developed from year to year with more participants, instructors, and activity options, we were forced to reconsider the appropriateness of the existing program administration. It has long been our belief that the effectiveness of learning is directly influenced by the immediacy, the quality, and the regularity of feedback provided to the learner after each trial. The lab school director found it increasingly difficult to review and suggest improvements on three lesson plans, postclass evaluations, and teacher journal notes for each of the 25 student instructors week after week. Similarly, as the program expanded the amount of time that he could spend actually observing the teaching of each student instructor became drastically reduced. What could he do? The answer was the development of a student supervisor program.

Supervisors

Each semester we now have approximately four student supervisors. These are usually seniors who have previously completed the methods course and who have been personally invited to serve. They receive credit through a course titled Practicum in Field Experience. The supervisors' duties, outlined in a job description, generally revolve around responsibility for working with approximately five to six student instructors each. Supervisors receive and respond to all written teaching preparations including block plan, lesson plans, lesson plan evaluations, teacher journal notes, etc. (The lab school director makes spot checks of student work and critiques the evaluations of the supervisors.) They observe and critique the teaching performance of their instructors and generally serve to reinforce and assist the student instructor wherever and whenever possible. The supervisors also alert the director of the program when one of their staff is having unusual difficulty or is not responding well to assignments and suggestions. The supervisory group meets twice a week with the director to discuss instructor performance and program administration. Supervisors also have an assigned time for meeting with their instructors on either an individual or a group basis. The addition of supervisors has proven to be a successful means for individualizing the work of our student instructors. It also has provided the immediate, qualitative, and frequent feedback so necessary to their learning.

Teacher Aides

The thought then occurred to us that the student instructors also needed help in dealing with the extremely diverse class enrollments. What could we do to help them? The response was the development of a teacher aide program. As with the supervisors, we developed a job description for the teacher aides. These are volunteer physical education majors from the freshman and sophmore classes. We have worked out a mechanism for them to receive program recognition for their participation as an aide. Each aide is assigned to an instructor and assists him in the two to three activity classes taught by that instructor. (We emphasize that the instructor is ultimately responsible for everything that goes on in class, including lesson planning, records, etc.) The aide assists the instructor in correcting student performance, in compiling student records, and frequently in working with one or more subgroups within the class.

The teacher aide program has provided an invaluable service to the instructor and the students in the classes. The aides also reap many benefits of their own. The exploratory, nonpressure teaching experience in the first years of their major program provides them with an opportunity to resolve many questions relative to continuing in this field. By the time they move into the junior year, we have found the teacher aides to be highly motivated, experienced, and familiar with the laboratory school program. The resultant effect has been a laboratory school program that continues to improve with each semester.

LOOKING DOWN THE ROAD

In the nine years since the inception of the Saturday Morning Physical Education Laboratory School we have continued to examine options for improving the quality of learning for both our practicing teachers and the participants. Each semester has seen modifications in the program. These have focused in the past and will focus in the future upon student experimentation with contemporary educational concepts and identified program needs. What will we tackle next? A brief outline of our goals follows.

Special Education

Traditional physical education programs and teachers have not been notably successful in identifying and responding to the needs of children who must overcome physical, mental, emotional or social obstacles to learning. The open classroom approach used in our laboratory school provides an excellent vehicle for returning these folks to the mainstream of education. We have already begun to seek out and include handicapped teenagers and adults for participation in the laboratory school program. In the months to come every effort will be made to both increase their number and improve the quality of the learning experience provided for them.

Student Evaluation

Educators have long desired a means of recording student achievement without resorting to the relatively meaningless letter grades of A to F. We feel that the traditional marking system can ultimately be replaced with a system of reporting that identifies more clearly the actual performances of students. Our efforts in the future will be to develop and reinforce those sequential learning tasks currently being used to individualize and monitor student achievement.

Records

Over half of our laboratory school students each semester have previously participated in the program for one or more semesters. We are chagrined to note that we have no record of their earlier participation or of the courses selected or achievement levels attained by each student. New instructors receive these returning students in subsequent semesters as though the students were enrolling for the first time. A third major effort for the future will be to develop a record system that will serve to monitor student achievement from semester to semester. We hope that the outcome of this effort will lead to less repetition for the students. A byproduct should be instructors who are more knowledgeable about both their students and the creative use of student records.

Course of Study

Let us review the dimensions of the task encountered by the typical laboratory school instructor during the first weeks after he enrolls in the methods course. Each student instructor must quickly become familiar with the organizational format of the program in order to play his role. This involves such tasks as preparing publicity; distributing, picking up, and processing applications; assigning students to sections; assigning staff; and checking facilities and equipment. Simultaneous to the work on program administration, each instructor is also expected to block out two to three activity courses for the eight-week period, including one sports activity totally foreign to him. Next, the instructor must prepare lesson plans for each class (his first ever) and meet the classes on the first day with full responsibility for both the class and the teacher aide. *All this must be accomplished within a timespan of 2½ to 3 weeks.*

These instructors obviously need all the help they can get. The supervisors have provided much of that help to date. The next step in the future is to prepare a two-part course of study for the laboratory school program. The first part, a description of the organization and administration of the school, is already well under way. Part two of the document will include course plans for each sport or activity in the program. We hope that the completed course description will serve not only to clarify and ease the adjustment for our instructors but also to provide them with a meaningful reference document that each can take into his student teaching experience and first year on the job.

CONCLUSION

The Saturday Morning Physical Education Laboratory School has been designed to provide an opportunity for students to synthesize and experiment with philosophies of education that have been up to this point only theory. The open classroom concept of individualizing instruction, concepts of learning for a lifetime, and the utilization of differentiated staffing techniques are all encountered on a very personal learn-by-doing basis. We note that there are many educational theories and practices that remain to be tested. This indeed is what makes our field so vibrant and educationally stimulating. The avowed goal of the student instructors and their teacher aides, supervisors, and students has been identified as follows: To develop individuals who are highly motivated, self-directed, and problem-solving lifetime learners.

I close with this observation. Each semester I stand in awe of the performance that students are capable of when they are given a meaningful challenge and opportunity. Their initiative, creativity, and productivity are a constant source of renewal for me.

PRESIDENT'S REPORT

Sheldon L. Fordham

The following activities were performed by the president during 1974:

Appointment of Committees

1. *Standing Committees*

Appointments were made to fill expired terms and vacancies on all standing committees. Chairmen were appointed and when acceptances were received from identified nominees, the chairman was notified of the composition of the committee. The chairman was sent a copy of the revised operating code and asked to comply. All appointments were approved by the Executive Council in Anaheim in March 1974.

2. *President's Committees*

The following committee was appointed and charged with its duties: Affirmative Action for Minority Group Members.

3. *Other Appointments*

a. Appointed C.E. Mueller as a representative of NCPEAM at the inauguration of President Douglas R. Moore of Mankato State College, Mankato, Minnesota.

b. Appointed Neil Dougherty to serve as chairman of the Professional Directions Committee to replace Hally Poindexter.

c. Appointed Donald Scherer to attend the meeting of the US Collegiate Sports Council in Chicago.

Meetings

1. Arranged for and conducted the Executive Council meeting of NCPEAM at the AAHPER convention in March in Anaheim, California.

2. Met with First Vice President Burris Husman and the board of directors of NAPECW at Harbor Springs, Michigan, in August regarding a continuation of our efforts toward a closer alliance between the two associations.

3. Met with Past President David Bischoff, Ann Jewett (president of NAPECW), and Jean Marsh in Athens, Georgia, in October regarding mutual concerns of the two associations.

4. Met with First Vice President Burris Husman in Baltimore in October to finalize the Phoenix program, discuss future directions of NCPEAM, and share viewpoints on 1975 committee appointments.

5. Met with Troy Hendricks in Hot Springs, Arkansas, in May to inspect the site of the 1976 convention and discuss contractual arrangements for the conference.

Correspondence

1. Communications with Ann Jewett, NAPECW president, concerning directions and mutual concerns of the two associations.
2. Communications with NAPECW *Spectrum* editors regarding information from NCPEAM to be included in that publication.
3. Extensive communication with the membership of NCPEAM dealing with Title IX legislation, increasing membership, junior colleges, relationships with NAPECW, and special interest group sessions.
4. Communication with past presidents inviting them to attend the Past President's Dinner at the Phoenix meeting.
5. Distributed the agenda for the Executive Council meeting to all officers and committee chairmen for the Phoenix meeting.
6. Communications with Arlington Hotel, Hot Springs, regarding contractual agreement for the 1976 NCPEAM convention.
7. Communications with the officers regarding possible changes in the operating code.

Convention Program

Worked with Burris Husman, Wayne Brumbach, Jim Odenkirk, and division officers in developing the Phoenix program.

Newsletter

Worked with A. William Fleming in preparing copy for the February, May, and October *Newsletters*.

Proceedings

Worked with Leo Gedvilas in preparation of the *Proceedings*. Mailed *Proceedings* from Chicago to the membership in September.

Recommendations

It is recommended that the association:

1. Make every effort to mail *Proceedings* to the membership at the earliest possible date after the annual meeting.
2. Create a special committee to investigate the possibility of closer articulation between the senior colleges and the community/junior colleges in an effort to share mutual concerns and increase membership.
3. Create a joint NCPEAM-NAPECW task force to make recommendations to the Resolutions Committee for taking a stand on critical issues facing the profession.
4. Request that the NCPEAM-NAPECW Conferences and Projects Committee be continued. One charge to this committee would be to address itself to the recommendations made last year by President Sprague.
5. Create a special joint NCPEAM-NAPECW committee to be called the Committee on Professional Information. The report of the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM might prove useful in developing a plan of action. It is hoped that the committee would publicize the two associations with a goal of increasing membership.

Many of the members have provided expertise and counsel in carrying on the affairs of the association. Special thanks are extended to Burris Husman, Wayne Brumbach, and the section officers in planning and developing the convention program. Leo Gedvilas and Bill Fleming prepared the *Proceedings* and *Newsletters* with efficiency and dispatch. Thanks are extended to Pat Mueller for his continued and dedicated efforts as your secretary-treasurer.

It has been a distinct pleasure to serve as your president during the past year. Please accept my sincere thanks and appreciation for making it a challenging and rewarding experience.

SECRETARY-TREASURER'S REPORT

C.E. Mueller

The secretary-treasurer served the NCPEAM membership through conducting the routine affairs of the office, such as collecting dues, maintaining financial records, paying invoices, processing memberships, answering correspondence, providing mailing labels to professional groups, and distributing copies of the *Proceedings*, *Quest*, and the *Newsletter*.

The responsibility for editing the *Newsletter* has been transferred to Bill Fleming, and the *Proceedings* is now edited by Leo Gedvilas, for which the secretary-treasurer is very grateful. In addition, the operating manual has been printed and distributed.

Paul Huber, certified public accountant, issued an auditor's report, identifying financial accountability and reflecting income of $15,340, expenses of $15,939, and a bank balance of $873. The special projects account shows receipts of $4,763, expenditures of $1,069, and a balance of $3,724.

In 1974, 1,062 memberships were processed, 211 fewer than the previous year and 220 fewer than the 1971 all-time record high of 1,282. This reduction is undoubtedly related to the increase in dues and other economic factors. (As of this moment, the current totals are 105 emeritus members, 71 new members, and 732 renewed members, for a total of 908 members.)

On the lighter side, your secretary-treasurer was invited to participate in the World Scientific Congress in Moscow at the expense of NCPEAM. In the interest of conserving association funds and saving paper, the invitation was declined by placing same in the recyclable paper file. Subsequent mimeographed correspondence from the University of Moscow requested the title of my presentation to the World Scientific Congress. Energy was again conserved by recycling the letter. On November 15, 1974, the organizing committee in Moscow sent the following cable: "Urgent: cable day, flight of arrival for us to meet you at the airport." It too was recycled.

Appreciation is expressed to the officers and members of NCPEAM for their cooperation and understanding as the affairs of the association are resolved.

Membership Summary

	1973	*1974*
Emeritus members	97	103
New members	132	65
Active members	1,044	894
Total	1,273	1,062

CONVENTION MANAGER'S REPORT: 78th ANNUAL MEETING

James E. Odenkirk

The following report is a summary of the 78th meeting of the National College Physical Education Association for Men held at Del Webb's Towne House, Phoenix, Arizona, January 9-12, 1975.

Facilities

The contract for use of the Towne House was made one year prior to the convention dates. The meeting rooms were contiguous to each other, facilitating the movement of participants from one meeting to the next meeting. Room sizes were adjustable, seating arrangements were comfortable, and adequate room was available for displays. The large lobby area adjacent to meeting rooms was attractive for informal sessions, social hours, and small meetings. Recreational activities were available at nearby facilities.

The meeting was held with a special invitation to members of the NAPECW. A large group of women attended the meeting and several members participated in the meeting.

Program

Burris Husman was responsible for an outstanding program involving sessions on Sport and Leisure, Professional Preparation, and Body of Knowledge. These programs were chaired by the division chairmen, James A. Peterson, James Ewers, and Dale Hanson.

An open forum was chaired by Vernon Sprague, past president of NCPEAM. Two sessions of special interest groups were held and, in conjunction with the Western College Men's Physical Education Society, the second general session featured a speech by Edward Scannell, Arizona State University.

The convention luncheon featured a presidential address by President Sheldon Fordham.

Several outstanding persons from related disciplines presented papers.

Convention Organization

Special congratulations are extended to Pat Mueller, Liz Heise, and the Valley of the Sun Convention Bureau for registration, selling of tickets, and secretarial responsibilities and to the men's physical education faculty and secretaries for management of the convention. Valuable assistance in the convention program and the trip to Pinnacle Peak was provided by the Extension Division, Arizona State University. Pictures and publicity displayed for each meeting held facilitated the smooth running of the convention. An added feature of the convention was two wives' tours to points of interest in Arizona.

Summary

Despite the economic climate and the noncentral location of the meeting, 182 regular members and 64 guests attended the convention. Many favorable comments were expressed about the outstanding setting for the convention and the quality of the programs presented. The officers of the association are to be commended for an excellent convention.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING
ANAHEIM, CALIFORNIA
MARCH 29, 1974

Members present: Wayne Brumbach, Burris Husman, Barry Pelton, Jim Ewers, Sheldon Fordham, Paul Hartman, Dale Hanson, Fred Roby, Jr., Ralph Bahou

Others in attendance: Jim Odenkirk, Glenn Arnett, Troy Hendricks, Jesse Parks, Chalmer Hixson, Art Kraft, Don Jones

1. The meeting was called to order by President Fordham at 1:05 p.m.

2. A *motion* was made and seconded that the minutes of the Executive Council meeting held in Kansas City, Missouri, on December 29, 1973, be approved. *Passed.*

3. A *motion* was made and seconded that appointments to standing and president's committees be approved. *Passed.*

4. Fordham reported that the balance in the NCPEAM account was $6,000; the balance in the special projects account was $4,500; the membership total as of March 21, 1974, was 1,013—down 260 from the report in the February *Newsletter.*

5. Husman reported on progress of program plans for the Phoenix meeting. The afternoon of Thursday, January 9, 1975, was set aside for recreation for those members who arrive early for the convention.

6. A *motion* was made and seconded that the Western College Men's Physical Education Society be given the second general session for their program. *Passed.* September 1, 1974, was set as the program receipt deadline from section chairmen to Husman.

7. Gustafson reported on the work of the Membership Committee. Gavin Carter, University of New Hampshire, was added to the list of committee members on that committee. Gustafson indicated that he would seek the help of the entire committee, who would assign the tasks to the individual state representatives. A biographical questionnaire was distributed by Gustafson. A *motion* was made and seconded that the questionnaire be distributed to the membership after possible revisions by the Executive Council were sent to Fordham. *Passed.*

8. A *motion* was made and seconded that the 1976 NCPEAM meeting be held in Hot Springs, Arkansas, on January 8-11 pending negotiations with the hotel by Fordham and Hendricks. *Passed.*

9. Two junior college representatives, Art Kraft (Triton Community College in Illinois) and Don Jones (Tarrant County Community College in Texas) made brief reports on their respective programs and how NCPEAM could best serve their needs. Both men were encouraged to enlist members in their own

geographical areas. Fordham agreed to send Gustafson some names of junior college NCPEAM members to serve on the Membership Committee.

10. A *motion* was made and seconded that a subcommittee composed of members of the NCPEAM-NAPECW Conferences and Projects Committee serve as the Project Advisory Board to review proposals for referral to the Scholarly Directions and Professional Directions committees. *Passed.* Appointments to the Scholarly Directions Committee are George Sage, NCPEAM, chairperson (one-year term); Wynn Updyke, NCPEAM (three-year term); Joanne Safrit, NAPECW (two-year term). Appointments to the Professional Directions Committee are Hally Poindexter, NAPECW, chairperson (one-year term); Virginia Studer, NAPECW (three-year term); Neil Dougherty, NCPEAM (two-year term).

11. Information regarding the time and site for the 1977 convention was given to Chairman Hendricks. It was suggested that college campuses be considered as possible sites for conventions.

12. A *motion* was made and seconded that Troy Hendricks be appointed convention manager for the Hot Springs convention in 1976. *Passed.*

13. A *motion* was made and seconded that all materials for inclusion in the *Proceedings* be in the hands of the division chairmen no later than one week after the close of the meeting. *Passed.* Every effort should be made to make the *Proceedings* available to the membership by the end of the spring quarter.

14. Fordham was directed to appoint a committee to examine the reports coming from the AAHPER commission and other groups dealing with the scope, purposes, and objectives of the profession in order to establish the feasibility of further study of the charge to NAPECW and NCPEAM made by President Sprague in his speech at Kansas City. Ann Jewett should be consulted to seek NAPECW involvement.

15. An inquiry by Parks regarding the opening of Executive Council meetings to all members was discussed. It was decided that these meetings have never been closed, but an invitation to members other than the Executive Council will be extended through the *Newsletter*. It was also decided that reports for action at the business meeting would be made available as early as possible to allow time for reading prior to the meeting itself.

16. Council members were asked by Fordham to submit names from additional ethnic groups to include on the Affirmative Action for Minority Members Committee.

17. A *motion* was made and seconded that the Executive Council would meet at 10 a.m. on Thursday, January 9, 1975, instead of at 1 p.m. to allow council members to attend the open forum meeting on the evening of the same date. *Passed.*

18. It was decided that one open forum session in Phoenix would be set aside for discussion of Title IX legislation.

19. It was suggested that resolutions be distributed to the editor of the *Newsletter* prior to October 1974 in order to allow action to be taken by the membership in Phoenix.

20. A proposal made to Fordham by President Jewett of NAPECW regarding a joint conference with NCPEAM to be held in October 1975 in conjunction with the Central States District meeting of NAPECW was discussed. A *motion* was made and seconded to place this on the agenda of the Executive Council meeting in Phoenix on Thursday, January 9, 1975. *Passed.*

21. The report of the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM (Jim Ewers, chairman) was accepted.

22. The meeting adjourned at 4:20 p.m.

Respectfully submitted,
Burris Husman
Secretary Pro Tem

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING
PHOENIX, ARIZONA
JANUARY 9, 1975

Members in attendance: Ralph Ballou, Wayne Brumbach, Ken Church, Jim Ewers, Sheldon Fordham, Dale Hanson, Paul Hartman, Burris Husman, C.E. Mueller, Barry Pelton, Jim Peterson, Fred Roby, Jr.

Others in attendance: Frank Beardon, Beverly Becker, David Bischoff, Jim Breen, Cedric Dempsey, Leo Gedvilas, Bill Gustafson, Troy Hendricks, Ann Jewett, Bob Korsgaard, Jean Marsh, Jim Odenkirk, Betty Spears, Vernon Sprague, Richard Swanson, Dale Toohey, Ed Turner

1. President Fordham called the meeting to order at 10 a.m.

2. The minutes of the March 29, 1974, Executive Council meeting were approved.

3. A *motion* was made and seconded to defer action on the resolutions presented by the Resolutions Committee until they were presented in written form. *Passed.*

4. A *motion* was made and seconded that the duties and obligations undertaken by the Affirmative Action for Minority Members Committee be absorbed and taken over by the Membership Committee. *Passed.*

5. The reports of the International Relations, Legislative, and Necrology committees were received.

6. A *motion* was made and seconded that the Policies Committee chairman receive copies of the minutes of the winter and spring meetings of the Executive Council prior to their appearance in the annual *Proceedings*. *Passed.*

7. A *motion* was made and seconded that the 80th annual convention be held in Orlando, Florida, January 6-9, 1977, and that negotiations with the Orlando Hyatt House should proceed. *Passed.*

A *motion* was made and seconded that the new chairman of the Time and Site Committee survey the membership to develop a rotational pattern for the next six years that would take into consideration location and time. *Passed.*

8. The meeting was recessed for lunch and reconvened at 1:15 p.m.

9. Husman reviewed the convention program and identified various changes involving location and substitutions.

10. A *motion* was made and seconded to submit the report of the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM to the Constitution Committee. *Passed.*

11. A *motion* was made and seconded to grant emeritus membership status to Thomas M. Evans, Victor P. Dauer, and Louis J. Richert. *Passed.*

12. The following NAPECW members joined the meeting at 2 p.m.: Ann Jewett, president of the NAPECW, University of Georgia, Athens; Beverly Becker, liaison to the NCPEAM, Skidmore College; Jean Marsh, cochairperson of the joint committee, Towson State College, Maryland.

13. Husman will make arrangements to place Henry F. Dunbar's thesis in the archives at the University of Illinois. Fordham will consult King McCristal concerning implementation of the writing of the history of the NCPEAM. A *motion* was made and seconded to reduce the membership of the Historical Records Committee to three, plus the archivist and president, who would serve as members ex officio. *Passed.*

14. The reports of the Public Relations, Research, and Operating Codes committees and the Project Advisory Board were received.

15. A *motion* was made and seconded that a member of the Executive Council be appointed by the president as a liaison officer to attend the NAPECW board of directors' meetings and to participate in other NAPECW events, as invited. This liaison officer will be appointed for two years, subject to reappointment. A *motion* was made and seconded to amend the motion by deleting the words "member of the Executive Council." *Passed.* A *motion* was made and seconded to amend the motion by striking the words "two years" and to insert the words "for a period of time up to the discretion of the President." *Defeated.* The main motion *passed* as follows:

> That the president appoint an NCPEAM-NAPECW liaison officer to attend the NAPECW board of directors' meetings and to participate in other NAPECW affairs as invited. This liaison officer will be appointed for two years, subject to reappointment.

16. A *motion* was made and seconded to accept the Constitution Committee report, which will be presented to the business meeting on January 10 but cannot be voted upon until the meeting next year in Hot Springs, Arkansas. *Passed.*

17. A *motion* was made and seconded to accept the report of the Nominations Committee, which identified Seymour Kleinman and Fred Roby, Jr., as candidates for the office of second vice president and C.E. Mueller for the office of secretary-treasurer. *Passed.*

18. A *motion* was made and seconded to have a separate mailing of the NAPECW-NCPEAM opinionnaire accompanied by a covering letter carrying the signatures of the presidents of the two organizations. *Passed.*

19. Betty Spears extended an invitation to NCPEAM members to attend the NAPECW annual convention, June 4-8, 1976, at Asilomar Conference Grounds, Pacific Grove, California.

20. A *motion* was made and seconded that the budget for 1976 presented by the Finance Committee be approved. *Passed.*

Husman recommended that the Finance Committee consider the possibility of a registration fee and that the past president become a member of the Finance Committee.

21. Gedvilas distributed a questionnaire for the participants in the convention program, which will facilitate the publication of the *Proceedings.*

22. The meeting adjourned at 5 p.m.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING
PHOENIX, ARIZONA
JANUARY 10, 1975

Members present: Ralph Ballou, Wayne Brumbach, Ken Church, Jim Ewers, Sheldon Fordham, Paul Hartman, Burris Husman, C.E. Mueller, Barry Pelton, Jim Peterson, Fred Roby, Jr.

Others in attendance: Frank Beardon, David Bischoff, Cedric Dempsey, Ed Malen, Jim Odenkirk

1. The meeting was called to order by President Fordham at 7:30 a.m.
2. A *motion* was made and seconded to adopt the following resolution: *Resolved*, by the National College Physical Education Association in convention assembled in Phoenix, Arizona, January, 1975, that the Executive Council of the organization continue to investigate the viability of NCPEAM combining with NAPECW into one professional organization and report back to the membership at the next annual meeting.

A *motion* was made and seconded to table the above resolution. *Passed.*

3. A *motion* was made and seconded to adopt the following resolution: *Resolved*, that NCPEAM urge the American Association of University Presidents to recommend to the National Collegiate Athletic Association and the Association of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women to offer financial aid received by student-athletes on the same admission and retention standards as for all students and any aid received should not be primarily dependent upon skill or involvement.

Defeated.

4. A *motion* was made and seconded that each successive past president of NCPEAM automatically be placed on the Finance Committee for the year following his term of office. *Passed.*

A *motion* was made and seconded that a $5 registration fee be charged all persons attending the annual meeting starting with the 79th annual meeting in Hot Springs, Arkansas.

A *motion* was made and seconded to amend the main motion as follows: include after "all persons" the words "except students and wives." *Passed.*

A *motion* was made and seconded to amend the main motion by changing the $5 registration fee to a $10 registration fee. *Defeated.*

The main motion *passed.*

5. A *motion* was made and seconded that NCPEAM endorse the position statement of the Joint Committee on Physical Education and Athletics in Colleges and Universities, "Professional Status of Collegiate Coaches." *Passed.*

6. A *motion* was made and seconded to rescind the motion relative to the NCPEAM-NAPECW liaison officer passed at the January 9 meeting. *Passed.*

7. A *motion* was made and seconded that the president appoint a member of the NCPEAM Executive Council to serve as an NCPEAM-NAPECW liaison officer to attend the NAPECW board of directors' meetings and to participate in other NAPECW affairs, as invited. NCPEAM will underwrite the travel expenses of the NCPEAM-NAPECW liaison officer to the NAPECW meetings. *Passed.*

8. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the deadlines for special interest group sessions. *Passed.*

9. A *motion* was made and seconded that the constitution be revised so that the immediate past president will serve as a member of the Executive Council. *Passed.*

10. A *motion* was made and seconded that association members who make a commitment to appear on the program at the annual conference must make their presentation in person, except in the case of an emergency. In the latter instance, the member must assume the responsibility of providing a stand-in. Also, in order for final manuscripts to be included in the *Proceedings*, they must be submitted to the editor no later than at the time of the annual meeting. *Passed.*

11. The meeting was adjourned at 9 a.m.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING
PHOENIX, ARIZONA
JANUARY 12, 1975

Members present: Ralph Ballou, Wayne Brumbach, Ken Church, Sheldon Fordham, Paul Hartman, Burris Husman, Charles Mand, C.E. Mueller, Barry Pelton, Fred Roby, Jr., Tom Sheehan, Wynn Updyke

Others in attendance: Beverly Becker, Leo Gedvilas, Troy Hendricks, Bob Korsgaard, Jim Odenkirk

1. The meeting was called to order by President Husman at 7 a.m.

2. A *motion* was made and seconded that the agenda be approved. *Passed.*

A *motion* was made and seconded that all papers for inclusion in the *Proceedings* of the Phoenix meeting be submitted to Leo Gedvilas by February 1, 1975. *Passed.*

A *motion* was made and seconded to include the Brumbach invocation in the *Proceedings*. *Passed.*

3. President Husman reappointed Bill Fleming as editor of the *Newsletter* and announced the following deadlines:

a. For the February *Newsletter*, items must be given to the editor by January 20.

b. For the May *Newsletter*, items must be given to the editor by May 1.

c. For the October *Newsletter*, items must be given to the editor by October 1.

4. A *motion* was made and seconded that the convention luncheon and the social evening be scheduled on the same date, as they were for the Phoenix convention. *Passed.*

5. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the format of the 1976 convention. *Passed.*

A *motion* was made and seconded that in the event Bill Cosby, or someone comparable, is invited to speak at the general session, a certificate or token of appreciation be presented to him. *Passed.*

6. President Husman distributed a temporary roster of committee chairmen.

7. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the president's appointment of Fred Roby, Jr., as NCPEAM-NAPECW liaison officer to attend the NAPECW board of directors' meetings and to participate in other NAPECW affairs, as invited. *Passed.*

8. A *motion* was made and seconded to shift the officers in the Body of Knowledge division as follows: Updyke will become first vice chairman, and Jack Schendel will become second vice chairman. *Passed.*

President Husman will consult the Constitution Committee regarding the shifting of positions within a division for their review and discussion.

9. President Husman has appointed a president's committee to study the possibility of future joint meetings between NCPEAM and NAPECW.

10. A *motion* was made and seconded that the possibility be explored of altering the Orlando meeting dates so that the convention would adjourn on Saturday, instead of Sunday. *Passed.*

11. President Husman requested that the Time and Site Committee extend the rotation schedule determining dates and geographical locations for future annual meetings.

12. The United States Military Academy at West Point extended an invitation to host the NCPEAM convention at a future date (agenda item for Atlantic City meeting).

13. A *motion* was made and seconded that a discussion be held at the Atlantic City meeting regarding the release form for authors so that articles from the *Proceedings* may be included in ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center). *Passed.*

14. A discussion about the three division vice chairmen's serving as a committee to organize the Think Room was deferred to the Atlantic City meeting.

15. The meeting adjourned at 9:20 a.m.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL MEETING
ATLANTIC CITY
MARCH 16, 1975

Members present: Ralph Ballou, Ken Church, Paul Hartman, Burris Husman, C.E. Mueller, Barry Pelton, Fred Roby, Jr., Jack Schendel, Tom Sheehan, Wynn Updyke, Harold VanderZwaag

Others in attendance: Beverly Becker, Jan Broekhoff, Sheldon Fordham, Leo Gedvilas, Troy Hendricks, Owen Holyoak

1. The meeting was called to order by President Husman at 8:30 a.m.

2. Item 9 of the January 12, 1975, minutes was corrected to read "of 1977 joint meetings." The minutes were approved as corrected.

3. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the agenda with the prerogative that the president may adjust the order based on availability of respondents. *Passed.*

4. Gedvilas reported that the cost of printing the *Proceedings* would be $4,000 this year, compared to $3,200 last year.

5. A *motion* was made and seconded to schedule time during special interest meetings for presentation of research papers that would be published in the *Proceedings*. *Passed.* The chairman of the Research Committee will confer with the Program Committee chairman to make these arrangements.

6. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the committees appointed by President Husman. *Passed.*

7. The division chairman reviewed the progress of program planning for the Hot Springs conference.

8. A *motion* was made and seconded that time be set aside from 7 p.m. to 8:30 p.m. in the first open forum for a presentation regarding the 1976 Olympics in Montreal. *Withdrawn.*

A *motion* was made and seconded that the International Relations Committee be given one hour of the three-hour time block parallel to the special interest groups for a structured pre-Olympics presentation. *Defeated.*

A *motion* was made and seconded that the pre-Olympics presentation be a part of the open forum on Thursday evening and that it abide by open forum guidelines. *Passed.*

9. The meeting recessed at 10:30 a.m. and reconvened Monday, March 17, at 7:30 a.m.

10. Wayne Brumbach and the Program Committee (and all subsequent program committees) will be responsible for evaluating next year's convention program and making recommendations to the Executive Council.

11. President Husman reported that NAPECW and AIAW have been asked to join the NCPEAM-NCAA-AAHPER joint committee, and the operating code will be revised to reflect this change. (The secretary-treasurer will send copies of the joint committee's operating code to members of the Executive Council).

12. A *motion* was made and seconded that President Husman charge the Resolutions Committee to develop proposals for resolutions and, after they have been approved, report to the Executive Council how they have been implemented. (Items I, J, K, and O of the Resolutions Committee operating code will be revised.)

13. A *motion* was made and seconded to endorse recommendation of a joint NAPECW-NCPEAM breakfast meeting that a task force be appointed to develop a mission statement and alternative plans that would lead to an alliance or merging of NAPECW and NCPEAM. *Passed.*

14. A *motion* was made and seconded that each division be provided with $200 for non-association member speakers at division meetings, the money to be taken from the special projects fund and for the Hot Springs convention only. *Passed.*

15. President Husman announced that the next Executive Council meeting will be held on Wednesday, January 7, 1976, at 1:30 p.m. to cover the expanded agenda.

16. A *motion* was made and seconded that the Convention Program Committee utilize respective NAPECW-NCPEAM division personnel for structuring the Orlando program. *Passed.*

17. Presidents Jewett and Husman will write an article regarding the appointment of the task force to study NAPECW-NCPEAM merger possibilities and announcing the intended joint meeting in Orlando, Florida. It will be published in the fall of 1975 in *Spectrum* and the NCPEAM *Newsletter* and distributed to all college and junior college physical education department chairpersons, as well as to editors of state physical education associations.

18. Fred Roby, Jr., and Beverly Becker will write a news item for *Update* summarizing the results of the joint NAPECW-NCPEAM meeting held in Atlantic City.

19. The *Quest* Advisory Board requested that mailings for *Quest*, NCPEAM, and NAPECW be centralized in an executive secretary's office. No action was taken because of insufficient funds.

20. Tom Sheehan will serve as chairman of a committee of division second vice chairmen to plan and organize the Think Room for the Hot Springs convention.

21. Hartman identified the problem of not knowing which association members were interested in serving as officers of the various divisions. This item will be placed on the agenda of the next Executive Council meeting.

22. The meeting was adjourned at 10:00 a.m.

Respectully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

GENERAL SESSION
BUSINESS MEETING
PHOENIX, ARIZONA
JANUARY 10, 1975

1. The meeting was called to order by President Fordham at 10:45 a.m.

2. Randy Randalls, executive vice president of the Phoenix Chamber of Commerce, gave the welcoming address.

3. The minutes of the annual business meeting held December 27, 1973, were approved.

4. The president's report was received.

5. A *motion* was made and seconded to receive the secretary-treasurer's report. *Passed.*

6. Korsgaard presented the Constitution Committee report, in which he announced that these amendments are to be voted on at next year's meeting:

   a. The immediate past president shall serve as a member of the Executive Council.

   b. The term of office for the secretary-treasurer shall be two years, instead of one year.

The *motion* to accept the report was *passed.*

7. Sprague presented the names of the nominees for second vice president: Seymour Kleinman and Fred Roby, Jr. He also presented the name of C.E. Mueller for secretary-treasurer. There were no nominations from the floor for either office.

Fred Roby, Jr., was elected second vice president.

C.E. Mueller was elected secretary-treasurer.

8. Betty Spears, president-elect of NAPECW, extended an invitation to NCPEAM members to attend the NAPECW annual convention June 4-8, 1976, at Asilomar Conference Grounds, Pacific Grove, California.

9. Beardon presented the Finance Committee report. A *motion* was made and seconded to approve the budget for 1976. *Passed.*

A *motion* was made and seconded that a $5 registration fee be charged all persons, except students and wives, attending the annual meeting starting with the 79th annual convention in Hot Springs, Arkansas. A *motion* to amend the main motion to read a "$10 registration fee" was made. *Defeated.* The main motion *passed.*

10. A *motion* was made and seconded to grant emeritus membership status to Thomas M. Evans, Victor P. Dauer, and Lewis J. Rickert. *Passed.*

11. Turner, chairman of the Necrology Committee, reported that the following members died during 1974: Joseph P. Dolan, Charles W. Hackensmith, Howard C. Leibee, and Paul R. Washke.

12. Hendricks extended an invitation to the membership to attend the 1976 convention in Hot Springs, Arkansas. A *motion* was made and seconded that the 1977 convention be held at the Orlando Hyatt House, Orlando, Florida, January 6-9, 1977. *Passed.*

13. Bischoff presented the NCPEAM-NAPECW Conferences and Projects Committee report. A *motion* was made and seconded that the president appoint a member of the NCPEAM Executive Council to serve as an NCPEAM-NAPECW liaison officer to attend the NAPECW board of directors' meetings and participate in other NAPECW affairs, as invited. NCPEAM will underwrite the travel expenses of the NCPEAM-NAPECW liaison officer to the NAPECW meetings. *Passed.*

14. Malen presented the report of the Joint Committee on Physical Education and Athletics in Colleges and Universities. A *motion* was made and seconded that the position statement "Professional Status of Collegiate Coaches" be adopted. A *motion* was made and seconded to amend the main motion to substitute the word "may" for "should" under C1—3rd column. *Passed.* A *motion* was made and seconded to either sustain or overrule the chair's decision to allow the above amendment. The chair was overruled. The main *motion* was *defeated.*

15. Brumbach commented about a motion passed by the Executive Council that in effect states that association members who make a commitment to appear on the program at the annual conference must make their presentation in person, except in cases of emergency. In the latter instance, a member must assume the responsibility of providing a stand-in. This procedure is necessary because the no-shows tend to reduce the effectiveness of the annual program.

16. Gedvilas urged program participants to submit their manuscripts as early as possible for inclusion in the *Proceedings.* He also reported on a motion passed by the Executive Council that states that in order for manuscripts to be included in the *Proceedings,* they must be submitted to the editor no later than at the time of the annual meeting.

17. A *motion* was made and seconded to rescind action taken at last year's meeting granting Chalmer Hixson emeritus status. *Passed.*

18. The meeting adjourned at 12:45 p.m.

Respectfully submitted,
C.E. Mueller
Secretary-Treasurer

STANDING COMMITTEES

CONSTITUTION COMMITTEE

Communication was initiated between the Constitution Committee and the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM and the Operating Codes Committee in order to reconcile and correct a current and possible future problem, to wit: the recently adopted constitution contains an aim and objectives; the operating manual contains a differing set; the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM suggests a third set.

It is the understanding that the president's committee intends to move for the adoption of its set. Comparison of the aim and objectives in the constitution with the proposed set is clearly indicated before final action is taken.

If a new aim and new objectives are adopted as a committee report with the intent that they shall replace those of the constitution, it is mandated that the new set cannot be voted on by the membership until the annual meeting after it has been presented to the membership. The constitution does allow for a mail vote but this is not the recommendation of the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM or the Constitution Committee.

The Operating Codes Committee is mandated to revise its codes by substituting the set that appears in the constitution for the one that has been published in the operating code.

Some comments relative to the report of the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM (January 1974 revision) are appended to this report.

The members of the Constitution Committee were requested to scrutinize and review the constitution in order to determine if there were imperfections, inconsistencies, omissions, etc. Some observations follow:

Article III—Membership. Section 2 affirms that the NCPEAM is restricted to men. Section 6 indicates that individual members of affiliated societies may become members of the NCPEAM. The interpretation is that only individual *male* members of affiliated societies are eligible to join the NCPEAM.

Article IV—Governance and Duties of Officers. In Section 2, in order to be consistent with Section 4, the division chairmen and vice chairmen should be listed in alphabetical order as follows:

e. The chairman of the Division of Body of Knowledge
f. The first vice chairman of the Division of Body of Knowledge
g. The second vice chairman of the Division of Body of Knowledge
h. The chairman of the Division of Professional Preparation
i. The first vice chairman of the Division of Professional Preparation
j. The second vice chairman of the Division of Professional Preparation
k. The chairman of the Division of Sport and Leisure
l. The first vice chairman of the Division of Sport and Leisure
m. The second vice chairman of the Division of Sport and Leisure

This change merely represents an editorial correction and does not constitute a constitutional change.

Article IV, Section 4h, states, "Under unusual circumstances (e.g., the lack of a quorum at the designated meeting for elections) the incumbent officers and

Executive Council members shall remain in their respective positions for the ensuing year." It was suggested that it would seem more appropriate to have the officers elected at past meetings move up, but leave the second vice chairman position open or provide for a temporary appointment by the president and/or the Executive Council. This suggestion was received too late to be considered by the committee. Perhaps the Executive Council may wish to ask the 1975 Constitution Committee to direct some attention to this suggestion.

President Fordham suggested that the Constitution Committee consider two changes: (1) that the past president be made an official member of the Executive Council and (2) that the term of office of the secretary-treasurer be for two years.

A poll of the Constitution Committee resulted in a rejection of the first proposal for the following reasons: (1) it had been considered and rejected by the original Restructure Committee of two to three years ago; (2) it was considered and rejected by the Executive Council when it adopted the Restructure Committee's report and again when the revised constitution was adopted; (3) it was considered and rejected by the Constitution Committee when it was drafting the revised constitution. Further, no new rationale was presented to justify a change.

A poll resulted in an approval of the second proposal. Therefore the Constitution Committee proposes a constitutional amendment: that Article IV, Section 4g, be amended by inserting after the word "officers" and before the word "and" the phrase "with the exception of the secretary-treasurer" (first line). Also, a new sentence is to be added: "The secretary-treasurer shall be elected to a two-year term of office that shall extend from the close of the annual meeting at which he is elected to the close of the annual meeting held during the second year of his term."

It is to be noted that even a three-year term of office might be acceptable in order that the secretary-treasurer serve throughout the period of time (three years) that an incoming second vice president would be in office. There may be merit in accepting such a proposal.

The chairman of the Constitution Committee extends his appreciation to the members of the committee, the chairmen of the Operating Codes Committee and the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM, and President Sheldon Fordham for their assistance and cooperation during the past year.

Respectfully submitted,
Robert Korsgaard
Chairman

Addendum: Comments Relative to the Report of the Committee to Review the Purposes of the NCPEAM (January 1974 Revision)

Note: Where section designations in the 1974 revision differ from those in the 1975 revision—included in the report of the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM—the designations in the 1975 revision are given parenthetically.

Aim of NCPEAM

The present constitution states the aim is "to further the achievement of *physical education and sports in institutions of higher education.*" The presi-

dent's committee claims the aim is "to assist with the advancement of *physical education at all levels.*" There is a fundamental question that the association must ask itself: do we exist to promote physical education and sports in the collegiate setting or do we exist to use the academic setting as a vehicle to promote physical education at all levels? It does make a difference in the way we focus our attention.

Objectives of NCPEAM

1. Should objective 3 be so specific as to identify the means by which the objective is to be achieved or should this be relegated to the subsequent section related to "achieving association objectives"?

2. Should objective 5 be clarified by revising it to read, "To review the *professional* recommendations *of the association* periodically for reaffirmation, change, or abolition"?

3. Does objective 8 say all that we expect it to say? The present constitutional statements appear to say something stronger and a little different, e.g., "develop interdisciplinary relationships with kindred fields of knowledge . . . anthropology, history, philosophy, physiology, psychology, sociology, sports medicine, and other disciplines." If the committee report intends something like this, it doesn't appear to say so. The committee report appears to refer to sister organizations, such as the AAHPER, NAPECW, and Society of State Directors.

Achieving Association Objectives

1. Is it necessary or desirable to place items A2, A3, and possibly A4 (1b, 1c, and 1d) in this report? Isn't this a function of the operating codes?

2. Regarding item C1 (3a), unification is much dependent on the NAPECW aim and objectives and raises the same question with regard to the aim of NCPEAM. Note that the title of the women's group is National Association for Physical Education *of* College Women. It is to be noted that the membership has not mandated a merger with NAPECW and until it does, perhaps item C (3) needs to be tempered or modified.

3. If item Dc (4c) is prescriptive, is it possible to call upon *all* school and college administrators, despite the desirability of such an effort? If it becomes incumbent upon someone or some group in the association to achieve this purpose, is it possible?

Finally, the Constitution Committee suggests a careful review, consideration, and reconciliation of the subject before final action is taken on the matter. Our aim and objectives are not to be taken lightly or underestimated and demand careful attention. This is not intended to imply that the president's committee has done anything but a great piece of work but only that there remain final thought and action before ratification.

CONVENTION PROGRAM COMMITTEE

Activities

1. The chairman received and studied the operating code for the Convention Program Committee.

2. The program format for the Phoenix meeting was approved by the committee.

3. Recommendations for program content, which were based on the open forum in Kansas City, were mailed to the division first vice chairmen.

4. In early February, after consultation with the convention manager, a proposed convention budget was submitted to the president and secretary-treasurer.

5. The Executive Council approved the recommendation that the Western College Men's Physical Education Society be responsible for the second general session. Further contact was made with Robert Bergstrom, who secured the general session speaker.

6. Program information and audio-visual request sheets were developed. These were used for reporting the program and for requesting audio-visual equipment, respectively.

7. Program content was discussed with the division officers in Anaheim. The final program was received in September, at which time it was collated and sent to the convention manager for the assignment of facilities.

8. The program was finalized for the *Newsletter* in October, and the final draft was sent to the secretary-treasurer in November.

9. The chairman met with President Fordham concerning the convention program on Thursday, October 31, and Friday, November 1.

Guidelines for Special Interest Group Sessions

The special interest group sessions were originated by NCPEAM to improve the value of its annual meeting to its members. The original concept of the sessions was that they would be formally scheduled times during which members could rather informally meet and discuss specific professional problems, share experiences, or try out some new and perhaps radical thoughts. To assist in implementing this concept, the following guidelines are suggested:

1. The number of sessions and their location in the program will be decided by the first vice president in consultation with the president and second vice president.

2. The scheduling of topics and discussion leaders will be a part of the duties of the second vice president.

3. The second vice president will be responsible for preparing a short notice for the spring edition of the *Newsletter* reminding members of the special interest groups and inviting them to send suggestions to him as soon as possible for the next annual meeting.

4. The second vice president will receive suggestions until midsummer and then develop a program for each of the sessions allowed in the convention program. In developing the program the second vice president will be guided by the following:

   a. If several topics appear to be equal value or interest and if there are more suggested topics than can be presented in the program, top priority will be given to the first suggestions received.

   b. In the event two or more members suggest the same topic, the one suggesting it first will be invited to serve as the discussion leader for that meeting.

   c. No more than eight topics will be scheduled for each session.

   d. A balanced program will be sought for each of the sessions in an effort to offer topics of interest to as many of the members as possible.

5. Only in exceptional circumstances, which must be agreed upon by the president and first vice president, will formal groups associated with NCPEAM be allowed to use these times for their meetings.

6. No formal papers are to be presented in these meetings, which are to be devoted entirely to discussions related to the topic listed in the program.

7. There should be no direct relationship between meetings scheduled by the divisions and this part of the program.

8. The second vice president will have the program established with firm commitments from all discussion leaders in order to meet any program deadlines established by the first vice president.

9. The second vice president will request all discussion leaders to give him any special requests for room arrangement and/or audio-visual equipment that will be needed for the meeting. He will pass on any requests to the convention manager through the first vice president.

Recommendations

1. A convention budget should be submitted and approved at the Executive Council meeting held in conjunction with the AAHPER convention.

2. Support funds should be given each division to develop an outstanding program. These funds should not be allotted to NCPEAM members who appear on the program.

Respectfully submitted,
Burris F. Husman
Chairman

FINANCE COMMITTEE

Activities

The committee was sent the following report, which shows the proposed budget for 1976.

Balance Forward	*1974 Budget*	*1974 Receipts and Expenditures*	*1976 Budget*
1. Estimated balance, September 1, 1975	$ 500	$ 998	$ 500
Receipts			
2. Membership dues (1,000: $20)	20,000	19,252	20,000
3. *Proceedings* sales	1,900	1,466	1,500
Total Revenue	$22,400	$21,716	$22,000

Expenditures

4. Special projects	$ 5,000	$ 4,950	$ 5,000
5. *Proceedings*	6,000	3,097	4,000
6. *Quest*	3,300	3,179	3,300
7. *Newsletters*	500	841	850
8. Annual meeting	1,500	2,252	2,250
9. General operations	3,500	4,250	4,000
10. President's contingency fund	500	—	—
11. Officers' expenses and fees	1,600	2,512	2,100
Total Expenditures	$21,900	$21,081	$21,500
12. Estimated balance, August 30, 1976	500	635	500

Pat Mueller, as you know, prepared this report and as usual was prompt and efficient in getting it to me. Comments in the following section were written by the secretary-treasurer.

Items of Information and Perhaps Action

In Item 12, the total listed under 1974 receipts and expenditures, $635, is different from the fund balance at the end of the fiscal year because it includes some members who have already paid their dues for the subsequent year. Please do not be concerned about this inconsistency.

In item 11, approximately $900 more was spent than budgeted, primarily due to the officers' travel expenses during the summer months to take care of association business. I suspect that in the past, some of the travel expenses were absorbed by college and university budgets, but this is no longer the case because of the economic squeeze. Perhaps we need to take a look at this item, because to my knowledge only the secretary-treasurer's fee of $1,000 and officers' travel to the annual meeting in the amount of $600 have been officially approved by the membership. These additional expenditures have usually been approved by the Executive Council.

Note in item 10 that I have discontinued the president's contingency fund and in essence have added it to the officers' expenses and fees.

In item 9, the general operations have increased because of inflationary increases in supplies and expenses, secretarial and clerical wages, addressograph and mailing fees, and the auditors' fees. At one time the association did not pay for long-distance telephone calls of the officers, but since college budgets have been tightened, all of the officers now have association credit cards. Also, we spent $250 on the AAHPER booth and I seriously question the advisability of continuing this project.

In item 8, the annual meeting exceeded the amount budgeted. Convention costs vary from year to year, depending on the locale and the manager of the convention. In some situations, the costs are absorbed by the local physical education department, but this too has been affected by tight budgets.

In item 7, the cost of printing the *Newsletter* has increased because of the expansion and improvement of the *Newsletter*.

In item 5, the *Proceedings* cost about half of what was budgeted, because a committee recommended reducing the size of the publication, and this resulted in a considerable savings. However, in talking to Leo Gedvilas, I believe the costs of this year's *Proceedings* will be in the neighborhood of $4,000.

In item 4, $5,000 has been set aside for special projects and by sending a copy of this letter to Dave Bischoff, I am suggesting that he may want to submit a 1976 budget for special projects.

There is some question as to whether we want to continue to operate on such a close relationship between revenue and expenditures. However, if we could consider the possibility of transferring limited funds from the special projects account, in case we get into financial difficulty, perhaps the dues can remain at the present rate.

Respectfully submitted,
Frank Bearden
Chairman

Cash Receipts and Disbursements for Year Ending August 31, 1974

	Regular Fund	*Special Fund*[1]
Fund Balance, September 1, 1973	$ 1,488.86	$ —
Receipts		
Membership dues	14,412.00	4,755.00
Publication proceeds	536.88	
Reimbursed expenses	391.20	
Interest credited	—	8.60
Total	$15,340.08	$ 4,763.60
Disbursements		
Office supplies	$ 427.26	$
Secretarial and clerical	900.00	
Addressograph and mailing	1,180.36	
Printing	818.05	
Newsletter	841.61	
Proceedings, 1974	3,097.80	
Quest	3,179.70	
Convention expenses, net	2,252.91	
Secretary-treasurer's fees	1,000.00	
Officers' expenses and fees	1,512.85	
Audit	335.00	
AAHPER booth rental	254.68	
Miscellaneous	139.75	2.90
SDC project — Professor Frank Small[1]	—	1,051.50
Total	$15,939.97	$ 1,054.40

Inter-Fund Transfers (Net)	15.00	15.00
Fund Balance, August 31, 1974	$ 873.97	$ 3,724.20

Summary of Fund Balances, August 31, 1974

NCPEAM Special Projects Fund[1]	
Checking, University National Bank, Minneapolis, Minnesota	$ 190.60
Savings, Home Federal Savings	3,533.60
Total	$ 3,724.20
NCPEAM Regular Fund	
Checking, University National Bank, Minneapolis, Minnesota	$ 873.97
Total Funds Balance	$ 4,598.17

[1] The Special Projects Fund was created under a new dues structure and revised constitution to support special projects of the SDC (Scholarly Directions Committee) and PDC (Professional Directions Committee) under a Projects Advisory Board (PAB) of the NCPEAM and NAPECW.

HISTORICAL RECORDS COMMITTEE

Recommendations and Action items

As chairman of the Historical Records Committee, I have had the opportunity to read correspondence of the past chairmen since 1968. The operating code is sound and, hopefully, will result in the preservation of all those documents that are the historical building blocks of the organization. I can only repeat several things that have been said in the past and propose several small ideas of my own:

1. Henry F. Dunbar's thesis (PhD, Columbia, 1950), "A Brief History of the CPEA," should be part of the archives at the University of Illinois, if it is not there already.

2. Everyone seems in agreement that a new history of the organization should be done. Logically, a graduate student from the University of Illinois should be the one to do it. If NCPEAM members feel strongly about it, a $500 scholarship-endowment could be established for a deserving student *or* physical educator to write such a history.

3. A committee of six seems too large; we don't need that many for the work needed by this group; possibly you might consider a constitutional amendment.

4. A small item should be included in the next *Newsletter* urging all NCPEAM members, especially former officers, to donate to the permanent archivist-historian, "Ace" Moore, all documents that might be of value to our organization.

Respectfully submitted,
John A. Lucas,
Chairman

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS COMMITTEE

Activities

1. Defining the role of the International Relations Committee within the present organization of NCPEAM.
2. Coordinating with the NAPECW International Relations Committee regarding future joint projects. Also with similar bodies in AAHPER, state organizations, and international bodies, such as ICHPER and ICSPE.
3. A North American society for specialists in comparative and international sport and physical education is being proposed. We are determining our role in such an organization.
4. During the Phoenix meeting, members with interests in international relations will meet in a special interest group session and discuss the above and determine actions to be taken and establish projects for the coming year.

Respectfully submitted,
Dale P. Toohey,
Chairman

LEGISLATIVE COMMITTEE

Purpose

Provide information to NCPEAM regarding legislation related to health, physical education, and recreation.

Activities

Collecting information from state chairmen.

Recommendations

None.

Action Items

There are none for voting action; however, some items for discussion follow.

A questionnaire was sent to each state for information pertaining to new state legislation, pending state legislation, and national legislation. The following states have responded:

Alabama (Art Fourier). None.

Alaska (John Gilmore). None.

Arizona (Jim Odenkirk). New state legislation: A presentation will be given from the State Board of Education.

Arkansas (Troy Hendricks). None.

Georgia (Bob Bowen). New state legislation: minimum instructional requirement in health education and physical education for preparing teachers (secondary level). The state will not enforce the law.

Illinois (Jack Razor). New state legislation and pending state legislation: Section 6-4.7 of the OSPI circular should not be interpreted as saying that driver education or health education can be substituted for physical education. The aforementioned courses are all listed as separate courses under Article 27 of the School Code. Article 27 contains no provision that would allow the substitution of one course for another.

Synopsis: House Bill 937 (ch. 122, pars. 27-5 and 27-6 and rep. par. 27-10) of the 78th General Assembly, State of Illinois, ammends the School Code. Deletes references to health instruction in sections relating to physical education and repeals section requiring instruction on the effects of alcohol, controlled substances, and cannabis on the human system.

Indiana (Bill Ruffer). None.

Louisiana (Hans Leis). New state legislation: new constitution.

Massachusetts (Reuben Frost). New state legislation: setting up core evaluation teams of regular teachers and special education consultants.

Nebraska (Gene Beck). None.

Ohio (Carl Erickson). Pending state legislation: legislation pending in the Ohio legislature in reference to collective bargaining for public employees including university professors—support needed for the AAUP position on this issue.

Oregon (Roger Wiley). National legislation: Title IX is coming up for a considerable amount of discussion. More recently, there has been a countermove made by Edith Green in Congress to change the concept of Title IX as originally proposed by HEW. Just what is taking place I am not sure. By this comment I am not suggesting that the NCPEAM Legislative Committee should take action; however, there are certain implications that might have some relevance for college physical education programs.

South Carolina (John Spurgeon). None.

Texas (Carl Landiss). None.

Utah (Keith Henschen). Other: some ideas for state legislation for discussion.

Virginia (Pat Bird). None.

Wyoming (John Woods). National legislation: update Title IX regarding college and university.

Alberta (Steve Mendryk). None.

Nova Scotia (Alexander Young). None

Quebec (Dough Insleay). None.

Jack Schendel brought up concern about Senator William Proxmire's intention to continue advocating abolishment of the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sport. Proposed Senate bill S3604 has been lost in committee.

Respectfully submitted,
James L. Breen
Chairman

NECROLOGY COMMITTEE

Activities

1. To ascertain those NCPEAM members who have died since the last report of 1974. They are: Joseph P. Dolan, Charles W. Hackensmith, Howard C. Leibee, and Paul R. Washke.
2. To write tributes for each deceased member.

Recommendations

None.

Respectfully submitted,
Edward T. Turner
Chairman

Joseph P. Dolan (1918-1974)

Dr. Joseph P. Dolan was the son of William L. and Teresa Shelley Dolan. He was born in Lafayette, Indiana, on June 16, 1918. On May 15, 1943, in Greenville, Pennsylvania, he married Marian Molke.

Dr. Dolan received his BS and MS from Purdue University in Lafayette, Indiana, and his EdD from North Dakota University, Grand Forks. He had been a regular staff member of Purdue University, Wyoming University, and Xavier

University of New Orleans before moving in 1954 to Kirksville where he joined the faculty of Northeast Missouri State University and served as chairman of the Division of Health and Physical Education for thirteen years.

He was nationally known for his publications, articles, and lectures concerning athletic injuries. He was the author of *The Treatment and Prevention of Athletic Injuries*, *Athletic Injuries: Prevention and Care*, and *Motivations in Games and Play*, as well as numerous journal articles. Dr. Dolan recently co-authored *First-Aid Management: Athletics-Physical Education-Recreation*.

Dr. Dolan was a former United States Olympic athletic trainer and worked short training periods with the New York Yankees, Green Bay Packers, Chicago Bears, and New York Giants. He served as a guest lecturer at 26 other state and private colleges and universities in establishing the athletic training profession and its standards.

During World War II, Dr. Dolan served with the United States Air Force in Guam.

He was a Fellow, American College of Sports Medicine, and a member of Sigma Delta Psi, Phi Epsilon Kappa, Phi Delta Kappa, Sigma Zi, and Sigma Delta Chi. He was also a member of the Kirksville Country Club and had been an active member of several civic organizations.

He is survived by two sons, Patrick Joseph Dolan of Kirksville and Michael Allen Dolan of New Carlisle, Ohio; one daughter, Karen Anne Dolan of Ballwin; and his wife Marian of 1701 S. Lewis Street, Kirksville, Missouri 63501.

Charles W. Hackensmith (1906-1974)

Dr. Charles W. Hackensmith was educated in the Ottawa, Illinois, public schools and served as captain of his track, swimming, and gymnastic teams while there. He received his BA from the University of Illinois in 1930, his MA in physiology and education from the University of Kentucky in 1935, and his PhD in physiology and health from Ohio State University in 1948.

He joined the faculty of the University of Kentucky in 1930 and spent his entire career there. In 1971, he retired.

His publications were extensive and far-ranging, including health education, intramurals, and the history of physical education. It was humorously stated that Hack's dissertation, bound in two volumes and weighing some twenty pounds, may have been the longest ever produced at Ohio State University. It eventually served as a basis for his excellent book, *The History of Physical Education* (Harper and Row, 1966).

It is to his credit and reflects the quality of the man that he was most productive during a time when others of less courage might have lost hope, and that his efforts in history were highly regarded by those in his field and in general history as well.

He was a recipient of the Southern District AAHPER Award and was granted AAHPER emeritus status in 1971. He also received every award the Kentucky AAHPER was able to give, including the Distinguished Service Award and the W.H. Mustaine Award. For years he was the editor of the *KAHPER Newsletter*.

He is survived by his wife Lucinda of 124 Westwood Drive, Lexington, Kentucky 40503.

Howard C. Leibee (1905-1974)

Professor Leibee was educated at the University of Colorado, where he received the BA, and at the University of Michigan, where he received the MA. Professor Leibee was a longtime member of the faculty at the University of Michigan. His major area of interest was the legal aspects of physical education. He wrote extensively in this area and also presented numerous papers at professional meetings.

Mr. Leibee was an active member of the First Presbyterian Church and the Kiwanis and a charter member of the Ann Arbor Square Dancing Leaders. He received special recognition from the National Organization for Legal Problems in Education (NOLPE).

Survivors include his wife of 1615 Cherokee Road, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48105, and two sons.

Paul R. Washke (1898-1974)

Dr. Paul R. Washke spent most of his life in Washington. He graduated with a diploma from Washington State Normal School in 1918 and subsequently enrolled at the University of California, University of Washington, and Western State Teachers College in Kalamazoo, Michigan, where he received his BA in 1927. He was awarded his MA by the University of Michigan in 1929 and his PhD by New York University in 1943.

He served as an elementary teacher, a high school teacher, an athletic coach, a director of a public school education program, and from 1927 to 1930, an assistant professor at the University of Michigan. He came to the University of Oregon in 1930 and eventually served as director of the Department of Physical Education for Men and director of the Intramural Sports Program for Men until he retired in 1968.

He served as a commander in the US Navy from 1942 to 1945 and was also a visiting professor at the University of Michigan, Utah State University, University of Texas, Syracuse University, and Portland State University. He was a prodigious worker, not only on his campus, but in professional affairs at the state, district, and national levels. He was president of the Oregon AHPER in 1942 and one of the founders and charter members of the Northwest District Association of AAHPER, serving as its president in 1932.

He received the Honor Award from the association in 1956, the Honor Award from the Northwest District in 1957, and the Honor Award from the AAHPER in 1972.

In Eugene, he was a member of the Rotary Club and the Roundtable Club and served as president of each. A practicing horseman, he managed the Oregon State Fair Horse Show several times.

A prominent Oregon educator once said of Dr. Washke, "The educators and students who were trained by Paul Washke are in a true sense the mirror of his endeavors, and what one sees in that mirror does nothing but reflect credit and honor on this great professional."

He is survived by his wife Ruth of 3220 Olive Street, Eugene, Oregon 97405.

OPERATING CODES COMMITTEE

Purpose

1. To assist the Executive Council and committees of the association in developing and maintaining efficient operations.
2. To maintain an up-to-date operating manual.

Activities

The primary work of the present committee has dealt with a followup to the extensive work of the previous committee. Changes that had been recommended were reviewed in reference to their proper inclusion in the revision of the operating manual.

During the year, correspondence was carried on with various officers of the association in an attempt to help finalize the status of our organization's operating codes. Committee members were consulted in reference to suggested code changes.

Copies of the report of the Committee to Review the Purposes of NCPEAM were received from Chairman Jim Ewers. These were sent to all members of the Operating Codes Committee for review. Implication for changes in the codes as indicated by this report were studied. These will be incorporated in codes at a later date. The Operating Codes Committee had no negative reactions on suggested changes for this report.

Recommendations

1. Items that have been suggested for code revision be integrated into the operating manual.
2. Operating manuals be made available for all members who need them.

The possibility of changing the tenure of the secretary-treasurer from an annual to a two-year term is being considered but has not yet been acted upon.

The foregoing deals with primary changes in the NCPEAM operating codes as of the present time. Obviously, other changes must be made. All of the members of the association who have been involved in the many recent changes and revisions are to be congratulated on a job well done. It is through such cooperative and dedicated work that we can continue to grow and develop as an outstanding organization.

Respectfully submitted,
John A. Friedrich
Chairman

POLICIES COMMITTEE

Activities

The chairman reviewed the minutes of the meetings of the Executive Council held at Kansas City, as printed in the 1974 *Proceedings*. In his opin-

ion, there were no items in the minutes that indicated that new policies should be recommended as a result of actions taken by the Executive Council. No minutes of the meeting of the Executive Council held at Anaheim were available to the Policies Committee chairman. It was concluded that no new policies were necessary since there was no notification of such by the Executive Council.

Recommendations

1. It is recommended that the chairman of the Policies Committee receive copies of the minutes of the winter and spring meetings of the Executive Council prior to their appearance in the *Proceedings*. The latter is received by members so late in the year that it makes thorough review and action by the Policies Committee almost impossible. A further complication results from the fact that the spring meeting minutes do not even appear in that year's *Proceedings*. This serves to make the Policies Committee almost wholly dependent upon the Executive Council for specific items for consideration.
2. The following members of the Policies Committee have served three years and must be replaced according to the constitution: Perry Johnson, University of Toledo, and Chairman Richard A. Swanson, Wayne State University.

Respectfully submitted,
Richard A. Swanson
Chairman

PUBLIC RELATIONS COMMITTEE

In the absence of a report for 1973, the committee had no guidelines from previous endeavors in continuing programs to follow. A letter was sent to each committee member early in the fall 1974 semester requesting any ideas they might have relative to the promotion of the organization. They were urged to compose a letter to distribute to male college physical educators in their area with an appeal to attend the national convention in Phoenix. Their opinions were sought relative to the inclusion of community/junior college people. Four of the committee members responded to this request. In November a subsequent letter was sent to each member of the committee with an outline of the annual meeting and a designation of areas to cover relative to promotion of attendance at the convention.

No activities other than the promotion of the organization were engaged in by the committee as a whole. However, Peter W. Everett, Florida State University, suggested that members of NCPEAM become involved with public affairs teams that are being organized in each state by HPER for the purpose of getting their message across to the public and state legislatures. This seems to have a great deal of merit and deserves serious investigation. It is a project that would seem to benefit the entire organization.

The question of community/junior college involvement might be considered by the total membership. There are those who feel that the commitment

and purpose of that phase of education and the four-year schools are not in harmony. Perhaps this should be clarified.

Respectfully submitted,
Arthur J. Gallon
Chairman

RESEARCH COMMITTEE

Activities

1. Most of the questions entertained by the committee in correspondence dealt with the delineation of the role of the Research Committee under the new structure of the NCPEAM. Individual members expressed frustration that there was no followup by members of the Executive Council with respect to the committee's recommendations in the 1973 report. Thus, no time allocations were made for scheduling research meetings in the convention program, nor did the committee receive specific tasks or projects.

2. By correspondence, the committee discussed the current operating code as suggested in the third recommendation of the 1973 report. There was considerable uneasiness about the status of the Research Committee under the new structure of the association. It was proposed that the existing operating code be scrutinized by members of the committee and other interested members of the NCPEAM. (See 3.)

3. The committee presented to the Executive Council the proposal to conduct a research symposium at the Phoenix convention. Individual members of the committee outlined topics and possible speakers for such a symposium. Upon investigation, it appeared that a separate research meeting could only be conducted as an interest group during the evening. Thereupon, the committee thought it wise to use this time for an extensive discussion of the role of research within the NCPEAM structure in general and of the Research Committee in particular. Several persons, familiar with the operations of the committee, have been invited to prepare position papers on this topic. The interest group is scheduled for Friday, January 10, from 8 to 10 p.m. The committee wishes to refrain from making specific recommendations until after the January 10 discussions.

Respectfully submitted,
Jan Broekhoff
Chairman

RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

The NCPEAM Resolutions Committee submits the following resolutions for consideration by the membership of the association:

Resolved, by the National College Physical Education Association in convention assembled in Phoenix, Arizona, January, 1975, that the Executive Council of the organization continue to investigate the viability of NCPEAM combining with NAPECW into one professional organization and report back to the membership at the next annual meeting.

Resolved, that NCPEAM urge the American Association of University Presidents to recommend to the National Collegiate Athletic Association and to the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women to offer financial aid received by student-athletes on the same admission and retention standards as for all students and any aid received not be primarily dependent upon athletic skill or involvement.

Respectfully submitted,
Cedric Dempsey
Chairman

TIME AND SITE COMMITTEE

The purpose of this committee was to identify and recommend the time and site for the 1977 meeting of the National College Physical Education Association for Men.

According to the rotation plan, the Southeast Area is eligible for the 1977 convention. This area includes: Delaware, Maryland, the District of Columbia, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida.

In addition to recommendations of members of the NCPEAM, major hotel organizations with hotels in the Southeast Area were informed of our interest in a site for the 1977 convention. Hotels indicating an interest in this convention were telephoned for an explanation of details. After knowing the details, those hotels continuing to show an interest were asked to send eight packets of materials including a letter explaining the more important aspects of their invitations.

Upon receipt, the packets from the hotels were distributed to members of the committee. Each member of the committee was asked to rank the hotels in order of preference and send his rankings to the chairman.

The Time and Site Committee recommends the following sites, in the order listed, for the 1977 convention of the National College Physical Education

Association for Men: (1) Orlando Hyatt House, Orlando, Florida; (2) Sheraton-Biltmore Hotel, Atlanta, Georgia; (3) Marco Polo Hotel, Miami Beach, Florida; (4) Fairmont Hotel, Atlanta, Georgia.

Respectfully submitted,
Troy Hendricks
Chairman

PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEES

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FOR MINORITY MEMBERS COMMITTEE

Purposes

1. To recruit ethnic-minority professionals into the association from schools with predominantly minority faculty or student composition.
2. To increase membership of ethnic-minority professionals in the organization.
3. To increase minority participation that will enhance the total program and help NCPEAM become more representative of its membership.

Activities

The committee chairman secured enough programs of the 77th convention from the secretary-treasurer to use as follows:

1. Sent to each committee member (affirmative action) and, also, to each black member of NCPEAM who failed to attend the 77th annual meeting a program along with a personal letter, as a followup, urging renewal of membership and increased attendance and participation at convention meetings. In addition, each leader was encouraged to continue to attract significant minority membership into the NCPEAM.
2. Sent a special letter, plus a convention program, to professionals in black schools, emphasizing the value and nature of the program and the marvelous job done by the program committee in including blacks as speakers and panelists, etc., on the program at the 77th convention.

Recommendations—Action Items

1. That the information collected in the president's questionnaire be used to select persons on the basis of merit, contributions, and educational qualifications, instead of race or color.
2. If and when black members are selected for programs or committees, etc., that they be involved in specific assignments calling for special work and attendance at the conventions.
3. That the duties and obligations undertaken by this committee be absorbed and taken over by the Membership Committee.
4. That ethnic-minority professionals be secured, as are other members, by the Membership Committee.

Respectfully submitted,
James A. Stevens
Chairman

COMMITTEE TO REVIEW THE PURPOSES OF NCPEAM

Purpose

To review the purposes of the National College Physical Education Association for Men.

Introduction

The following report was received by the Executive Council and presented at the business meeting as an information item at the Kansas City meetings, December 1973. The report was revised and approved by the Executive Council in Anaheim, April 1974. It was then distributed to the Constitution Committee and Operating Codes Committee for further review. Their suggestions were incorporated into this January 1975 revision. This revision was again presented to the Executive Council for approval of two minor changes. If approved by the Executive Council in Phoenix, a constitutional amendment is in order at the business meeting in Phoenix. The association would then vote on the constitutional change in Hot Springs, Arkansas, January 1976.

Aim of NCPEAM

The aim of the National College Physical Education Association for Men is to assist with the advancement of physical education at all educational levels.

Objectives of NCPEAM

The objectives of the National College Physical Education Association for Men are:

1. To provide a forum where scholars interested in one or more phases of physical education can meet both formally and informally to exchange ideas and information.
2. To identify, debate, and adopt definitive policy statements with respect to major issues, problems, and trends related to the profession.
3. To publicize the resolutions and policy statements through the *Proceedings* and in other professional journals and forward them to the board of directors of AAHPER.
4. To carry on a vigorous program of informing college presidents, governance boards, etc., of the professional recommendations of the association.
5. To review recommendations periodically for reaffirmation, change, or abolition.
6. To identify, support, and encourage organized research concerned with basic problems confronting physical education.
7. To initiate and promote an interest in and improvement of teaching and administrative standards.
8. To maintain effective liaison with related professional organizations whose common interests and problems require coordinated efforts.
9. To encourage each individual member to identify and recruit well-qualified people to the profession of physical education.

Achieving Association Objectives

The National College Physical Education Association for Men will strive to achieve the adopted objectives through the following:

1. Annual Meeting

a. The primary purpose of the annual meeting of the association is to provide members with opportunities to discuss problems, exchange ideas, and share information related to physical education.

b. Dates and location of the annual meeting shall be selected in order to encourage maximal attendance by the members of the association. A rotation system among geographical areas shall be continued in the selection of the site for the annual meeting.

c. Site locations for the annual convention that place no restriction on association members with reference to housing, attendance at meetings, or other factors tending to divide the membership shall be considered.

d. The length of the official convention shall be limited to three days. This does not prevent any group from meeting before the convention, but group meetings shall not be included in the official program, nor shall any papers or summaries of preconvention meetings be a part of the *Proceedings*.

e. Any issue that is to be brought before the entire assembly as a formal proposal in which the association is requested to take a position will be subject to the following procedure:

(1) All issues will be directed to the Resolutions Committee for review.

(2) The Resolutions Committee chairman will request issues to be the topic for an open forum and or special interest group meetings.

(3) The Resolutions Committee chairman will present the issue to the Executive Council.

(4) Upon the approval of the Executive Council, the issue will be presented to the entire membership as an information item.

(5) Action relative to the association's position will take place at the next regularly scheduled business meeting (one year later).

(6) A reminder of the issue will be included in one of the *Newsletters* prior to the meeting in which action will be taken.

f. Program chairmen should be encourged to reduce paper reading to a minimum in planning their sessions and initiate innovative and meaningful presentations.

2. Publications

a. Disseminate deliberations of the annual meeting through the published *Proceedings* and through reports covering such special projects as may be authorized by the association.

b. Edit carefully all publications of the association to make certain that they represent a high quality of scholarship and follow approved methods of conducting and reporting educational research.

c. Reject advertising or other extraneous material for publication in the literature of the association.

d. Collaborate with the National Association for Physical Education of College Women in the publication of *Quest*.

e. Display the following statement on the inside cover of the *Proceedings*:

> Nonprofit organizations may secure reprints of *Proceedings* articles by paying the cost—plus handling charges. Additionally, said organization must secure the author's permission and then may request the privilege of reprinting and/or translating articles, giving appropriate credit to the author and the *Proceedings*.

3. Coordination with the National Association for Physical Education of College Women (NAPECW).

a. NCPEAM should continue efforts to combine with NAPECW to form one unified college physical education association.

b. NCPEAM should continue to invite NAPECW members to attend the annual meetings of NCPEAM.

c. Programs at annual NCPEAM meetings should be planned to involve women participants.

d. Joint scholarly and professional projects, in addition to *Quest*, should be encouraged between NCPEAM and NAPECW.

4. Coordinating with other agencies

a. NCPEAM shall cooperate with other education agencies to improve professional preparation programs in physical education.

b. NCPEAM shall cooperate with other educational agencies in promoting the objectives of physical education.

c. NCPEAM shall call upon all school and college administrations to secure properly qualified professional personnel to teach, coach, and administer physical education and athletic programs.

d. NCPEAM shall cooperate with other educational organizations in sponsoring and/or having official representation at conferences in physical education.

e. NCPEAM shall coordinate whenever possible the work of committees and projects with similar committees from other professional organizations.

f. NCPEAM shall cooperate with other professional societies in the formulation of education standards and in recommending them to colleges and universities for the development and control of programs of physical education.

g. NCPEAM shall explore its potential role in the National Association of Physical Education and Sport.

5. Membership and promotion

a. The Membership Committee should be encouraged to distribute to prospective members as much information as possible related to the purposes, program highlights, publications, and special projects of NCPEAM.

b. Each individual association member should assume the responsibility to identify and invite colleagues to take an active role in NCPEAM.

c. The Public Relations Committee should be encouraged to assist the NCPEAM president in communicating the association's positions on issues, standards, and trends to college presidents, deans, and governance boards.

Respectfully submitted,
Jim Ewers
Chairman

JOINT COMMITTEE ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND ATHLETICS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES—NCPEAM-NCAA-AAHPER

Purpose

This committee is designed to promote cooperation and coordination among the member organizations in the field of physical education and athletics in colleges and universities.

Activities

The joint committee met in Anaheim, California, on March 31, 1974, at the AAHPER convention. The next meeting was tentatively scheduled for the NCAA convention in Washington, D.C., on January 6, 1975.

1. The operating code of the committee (see below) was revised to reflect recent social changes affecting physical education and athletics and to facilitate the potential broadening of the committee to incorporate women's organizations.
2. The position statement of the joint committee, "Professional Status of Collegiate Coaches," was put into final form and will be submitted to member organizations and other agencies for their "official approval."
3. The position statement "Organization and Administration of Club Sports," under the chairmanship of Carl Erickson, Kent State University, was reviewed. The scope of the statement is to be broadened and resubmitted to the joint committee for future endorsement.
4. The joint committee discussed ways and means for the promotion of position statements of the joint committee. Ross Merrick is to investigate the expense of a proposed method of implementation and will notify the joint committee members regarding feasibility and the possibility of a special assessment.
5. The joint committee discussed ways to encourage colleges and universities to take leadership in promoting the establishment of certification procedures for high school coaches in those states that do not presently have such procedures. It was suggested that the committees' interest and concern be expressed to the chairperson of the DMA Task Force for Certification of High School Coaches with a view to assisting in the establishment of implementation procedures.
6. Tom Meinhardt was named chairperson of a subcommittee to identify an individual who could coordinate the development of a list of research topics that would be appropriate for theses dealing with physical education and athletics.
7. Carl Erickson was named chairperson of the joint committee for the next two years.

Operating Code

Name

The name of the committee shall be the Joint Committee on Physical Education and Athletics in Colleges and Universities.

Purpose

1. To study, discuss, and make recommendations on problems of mutual interest in the field of physical education and athletics in colleges and universities.
2. To formulate plans for the composition and distribution of factual information of national interest pertaining to physical education and athletics in colleges and universities.
3. To gather information and make studies of trends in physical education and athletics that are of common interest to the organizations represented.
4. To act as an agency for interassociation relationships.

Organization

1. The membership of the joint committee shall include representatives of organizations that may be classified as college and university oriented, national physical education professional associations, and/or national organizations that regulate intercollegiate athletics.
2. The joint committee shall be organized as a continuing standing committee of the constituent organizations.
3. Additional constituent organizations shall be approved for membership by majority vote of the existing constituent organizations as represented on the joint committee.
4. The joint committee shall consist of the following: three members from each of the constituent organizations; the immediate past chairperson of the joint committee (ex officio); and the Consultant in Physical Education and Athletics of AAHPER (ex officio), who shall serve as secretary-treasurer.
5. A chairperson shall be elected every two years from among the members of the committee at a regular meeting of the committee by majority vote and shall serve for a two-year term.
6. Committee members shall serve for three years in rotating terms of office.
7. The new committee members shall be appointed by the sponsoring organizations by June 1 of each year.
8. Acceptance of appointment to the joint committee carries with it the responsibility of attending the annual meeting of the committee.

Recommendations

That the Executive Council endorse in principle the position statement "Professional Status of Collegiate Coaches."

Respectfully submitted,
Edward W. Malan
Chairman

NCPEAM-NAPECW CONFERENCES AND PROJECTS COMMITTEE

Activities

The primary function of the committee over this past year was to insure the creation of an interim Project Advisory Board to oversee the projects proposed by the Scholarly Directions Committee and the Professional Directions Committee during 1975 and to continue interaction with the officers of NAPECW. The chairperson has met on two separate occasions with the members of the NAPECW Executive Committee. On October 4, President Fordham and I traveled to Athens, Georg), to discuss matters of mutual concern with Ann Jewett, NAPECW president, and Jean Marsh, NAPECW joint committee chairperson. On October 12, the chairperson attended an NAPECW meeting in Chicopee, Massachusetts, and met for several hours with Ann Jewett and Jean Marsh, plus Betty Spears, NAPECW president-elect.

The principal result of the meetings was the determination that there should be an opportunity for the two organizations to meet at the AAHPER meeting in Atlantic City to discuss areas of mutual concern (including possibilities of bringing the two organizations closer together). Such an interaction could begin with a scheduled open forum to which all members of each organization would be invited. On the following morning, a combined Executive Board meeting would be scheduled to discuss mutual concerns in some detail with regard to possible action responses to appropriate issues and then finally the board would split and meet separately for further business. The major problem with this proposal (assuming board approval) is convincing the AAHPER hierarchy that such a meeting is appropriate and should be noted in the convention program. President-Elect Husman and Jean Marsh are presently working with George Anderson on this matter.

In my interactions with Professor Marsh, both of us have come to the agreement that a joint committee that does not meet together at any time during the year has very little chance to be of real use to either organization. After some consideration, it appears that a more formal step must be taken to insure continued meaningful interface between NCPEAM and NAPECW.

Recommendations

I propose that NCPEAM add one member to the Executive Council who would be our formal liaison member with NAPECW. I would suggest that the election be for a three-year term (to provide continuity) and would further suggest that NCPEAM pay our liaison representative's travel expenses to the annual NAPECW meeting, where he would attend NAPECW Executive Board meetings as a nonvoting member and participate in other NAPECW affairs as invited. It is hoped that NAPECW will propose a similar officer as a member of their board.

I firmly believe this proposal is the appropriate mechanism to encourage further cooperation and to foster a deeper understanding of each organization by the other.

Respectfully submitted,
David C. Bischoff
Chairperson

NCPEAM-NAPECW PROJECT ADVISORY BOARD

Activities

At the 77th Annual Meeting of the NCPEAM in December 1973, the report of the Committee to Review and Develop Special Programs was adopted, and both a Professional Directions Committee and a Scholarly Directions Committee were appointed. The membership of the Scholarly Directions Committee included Wynn Updyke (three-year term), JoAnne Safrit (two-year term), and Chairperson George Sage (one-year term). The membership of the Professional Directions Committee included Virginia Studer (three-year term), Neil Dougherty (two-year term), and Chairperson Hally Poindexter (one-year term). Because of the press of time I was asked by Presidents Fordham and Jewett to serve as a one-person Project Advisory Board to review 1974 projects and was also requested to appoint an interim Project Advisory Board to evaluate PDC and SDC projects for 1975. No projects for 1975 have yet been submitted.

The 1974 budget item for the PAB from NCPEAM was $4,950, and the budget item from NAPECW for 1974 was $2,000 (plus an additional item of $1,000 for operating expenses of NAPECW joint committee members). The total amount available to the Project Advisory Board for 1974 projects was $6,950. During 1974 the following expenses were authorized:

Scholarly Directions Committee Grants

1. Research Directions in Motor Development (six participants)		$1,036.41
2. Movement Control in Motor Skills (four participants)		871.54
3. Design of a Systematic Research Effort in the Area of Coincidence-Anticipation (five participants)		781.00
4. Chairperson expenses		13.30
	Total	$2,702.25

Professional Directions Committee Projects

1. Early Bird Fastback on the Implementation of Title IX (approximate)		$2,150.00
2. Neil Dougherty travel to Brockport, New York		67.10
	Total	$2,217.10
	Grand Total	$4,919.35

The interim Project Advisory Board will have a balance of $2,030.65 to begin the 1975 granting period. The interim PAB for administering the Special Projects Fund for 1975 will consist of Eloise Jaeger and Jean Marsh from NAPECW and David Leslie, Deane Richardson, and Jack Schendel from NCPEAM.

Respectfully submitted,
David C. Bischoff
Chairperson

NCPEAM CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS

CONSTITUTION

Article I—Name

Section 1—The organization shall be known as the National College Physical Education Association for Men. Hereinafter it shall be referred to as the association.

Article II—Aim and Objectives

Section 1—The aim of the association is to further the advancement of physical education and sport in institutions of higher education.

Section 2—The objectives are:

a. To improve the contributions of physical education intramurals, sport, and athletics and, when appropriate, the related fields of health education and recreation to higher education.

b. To identify and define major issues and problems confronting the profession, particularly those of higher education, and encourage and organize research including the gathering, analyzing, and interpreting of data in an effort to resolve these issues and problems.

c. To develop interdisciplinary relationships with kindred fields of knowledge for the insights they may be able to contribute on the nature and values of physical education, e.g., anthropology, history, philosophy, physiology, psychology, sociology, sports medicine, and other disciplines.

d. To improve public relations through increasing public awareness and understanding of the nature and purposes of physical education.

Article III—Membership

Section 1—There shall be three types of membership: active, emeritus, and affiliated societies.

Section 2—Active members are men actively engaged in physical education —teaching, research, or administration in colleges—or are male physical education graduate students or are men associated with allied fields.

Section 3—Emeritus members are those who were active members at the time of retirement and had been active members for a minimum of fifteen of the previous twenty years.

Section 4—Affiliated societies are those organized groups whose purposes, qualifications for membership, and standards are in harmony with the association and who have petitioned for and been accepted by the association.

Section 5—Emeritus members enjoy all rights and privileges of the association with the exception of holding office or sitting on the Executive Council.

Section 6—Individual members of affiliated societies must become active members of the association to be eligible for its rights and privileges.

Article IV—Governance and Duties of Officers

Section 1—The governance and functioning of the association shall be vested in its officers, Executive Council, committees, and members as hereinafter provided.

Section 2—The officers and the Executive Council shall be the governing body of the association and consist of:

a. The president
b. The first vice president
c. The second vice president
d. The secretary-treasurer
e. The chairman of the Division of Body of Knowledge
f. The first vice chairman of the Division of Body of Knowledge
g. The second vice chairman of the Division of Body of Knowledge
h. The chairman of the Division of Professional Preparation
i. The first vice chairman of the Division of Professional Preparation
j. The second vice chairman of the Division of Professional Preparation
k. The chairman of the Division of Sport and Leisure
l. The first vice chairman of the Division of Sport and Leisure
m. The second vice chairman of the Division of Sport and Leisure

Section 3—The Executive Council shall manage the general affairs of the association except as hereinafter specified and each member shall exercise equal voting powers. Its responsibilities include: (a) fulfilling directives charged to it by the membership at the annual business meeting, special meetings, or actions resulting from mail votes; (b) presenting matters of policy to the membership at the annual business meeting, special meetings, or through submitting such matters for the casting of a mail ballot for approval; (c) acting for the association between annual meetings; (d) maintaining an active program throughout the year; and (e) making appointments to fill vacated offices not otherwise provided for.

Section 4—Officers and Executive Council members shall be elected for their terms of office at the annual meetings of the association.

a. A nominating committee consisting of the three immediate past presidents, with the retiring president as chairman, shall prepare a slate of two names for the office of second vice president-elect. They shall also prepare the slate for the position of secretary-treasurer and may, at their discretion, submit only the name of the incumbent secretary-treasurer.

b. At least three months prior to the annual meeting, each division chairman shall appoint a nominating committee consisting of three association members to prepare a slate of two names for the position of second vice chairman for each of the respective divisions.

c. Additional nominations for the positions of second vice president, secretary-treasurer, and second vice chairman for all divisions may be made from the floor.

d. With the exception of the secretary-treasurer, officers and Executive Council members are not eligible for reelection to the same position (or a position that ultimately leads to that same position) immediately upon the expiration of their terms of office.

e. The election of the following officers shall occur at the business meeting of the annual meeting: second vice chairman, Division of Body of Knowledge; second vice chairman, Division of Professional Preparation; second vice chairman, Division of Sport and Leisure; second vice president of the association; secretary-treasurer.

f. A majority vote shall be required for election. If no candidate receives a majority on the first ballot, the two candidates receiving the highest number of votes shall then be voted upon. When there are two or more nominees for one office, voting shall be by secret ballot.

g. All officers and Executive Council members (division officers) shall be elected to a one-year term of office that shall extend from the close of the annual meeting at which they were elected to the close of the next annual meeting.

h. Under unusual circumstances (e.g., the lack of a quorum at the designated meeting for elections) the incumbent officers and Executive Council members shall remain in their respective positions for the ensuing year.

Section 5—Duties of the president: The president shall preside at all association and Executive Council meetings and appoint all committees as prescribed in the bylaws. He shall call and make appropriate arrangements for the place and conduct of all meetings of the association and the Executive Council as hereinafter provided. He shall supervise the program planning for all association meetings as provided in Section 6. He shall provide for an annual audit of the secretary-treasurer's accounts. He shall be authorized to sign checks in the absence of the secretary-treasurer.

Section 6—Duties of the first vice president: The first vice president shall plan the program for the association's regular annual meeting under the supervision of the president. While his primary responsibility shall be the arrangements for the general session(s), he also shall work with the division first vice chairmen. He shall, during the absence of the president, perform all of the duties of the president and, if the office of the president becomes vacant, the first vice president shall succeed to the presidency for the unexpired term.

The first vice president shall succeed to the presidency at the normal expiration of the president's term of office. Should he complete a vacated president's unexpired term, he will succeed himself for the succeeding (his own normal) term of office as president.

He shall familiarize himself with the duties and responsibilities of the president in preparation for substituting in that role and succeeding to that position.

Section 7—Duties of the second vice president: The second vice president shall be in charge of arranging for the special interest section meetings of the annual meeting. He shall succeed to the position of the first vice presidency at the normal expiration of the first vice president's term of office.

Should he complete a vacated first vice presidency, he will then succeed himself as first vice president at the normal expiration of the original first vice president's term of office.

The second vice president should use his term to prepare for and learn the duties of the first vice president and of the president in addition to such duties as the president may wish to delegate to him.

Section 8—Duties of the secretary-treasurer: The secretary-treasurer shall perform all duties usually incumbent upon these offices; edit and cause to be published the *Proceedings* of the annual meeting as well as other publications of the association, collect dues, pay association bills on approval by the president, assume general charge of all monies belonging to the association, render a financial account to members at the annual business meeting, and conduct mail voting procedures as authorized by the president.

The secretary-treasurer shall be bonded by the association. He shall receive an annual budget for clerical and other services as determined by the Executive Council.

Section 9—Duties of the division chairman: The division chairman shall preside at all division meetings. He shall supervise the program planning for all division meetings held during the annual meetings of the association. He

shall assume the responsibility for pursuing professional activities throughout the year that are pertinent to the interests of the division. He shall be responsible for the conduct of division activities in a manner consistent with the intent and stated provisions of the association's constitution and bylaws. He appoints his division's nominating committee and such other committees that are within the purvue of that division.

Section 10—Duties of the division first vice chairman: The first vice chairman, under the supervision and with the assistance of the chairman, shall plan the division programs for its regular annual meetings. Additional assistance shall be obtained from the second vice chairman and committees appointed by the chairman.

During the absence of the chairman, he shall perform all the duties of the chairman and, if the office of the chairman becomes vacant, he shall succeed to the unexpired term of the chairman.

He shall succeed to the office of chairman at the normal expiration of the chairman's term of office. Should he complete an unexpired term for the chairman, he will then succeed himself for the succeeding (his own normal) term of office as chairman.

He shall familiarize himself with the duties and responsibilities of the chairman in preparation for fulfilling that position.

Section 11—Duties of the division second vice chairman: The second vice chairman shall serve as secretary for his division: keeping minutes, forwarding all papers and reports presented at division meetings to the secretary-treasurer for publication consideration in the *Proceedings*, and passing along the minutes and such other documents and information that may be indicated to his successor. He shall, at the request of the chairman or the first vice chairman of his division, assist with the program planning for his division.

He shall succeed to the first vice chairmanship at the normal expiration of the first vice chairman's term of office. If the first vice chairman's office becomes vacant, he shall succeed to the unexpired term of that office. Should he complete such an unexpired term, he will then succeed himself for the succeeding (his own normal) term of office as first vice chairman.

He shall familiarize himself with the duties and responsibilities of the first vice chairman and chairman in preparation for fulfilling these positions.

Article V—Meetings

Section 1—The association and its Executive Council shall each hold at least one annual meeting at a time and place designated by the Executive Council.

Section 2—Special meetings of the association or the Executive Council may be called by the president upon authorization by the Executive Council.

Section 3—*Roberts' Rules of Order* shall govern the conduct of all business of the association not covered in this constitution and bylaws.

Section 4—Quorums necessary to conduct business are:

a. At the regular annual meeting of the association a quorum shall be 30 percent of the members registered for that annual meeting at the times of the business meetings.

b. A mail vote quorum shall consist of 15 percent of the current membership. No mail vote shall be valid after thirty days from the date upon which the question was mailed by the secretary-treasurer to the members for action.

c. A quorum of the Executive Council shall consist of at least three-fifths of the members.

Article VI—Amendments

Section 1—The constitution may be amended by *either one* of two ways:

a. Submission of an amendment to the Executive Council at least one Executive Council meeting preceding the one held in conjunction with the first day's activities of the regular annual meeting. The amendment must be received in sufficient time to be included in the *President's Newsletter* or a special letter to the membership that can be received by the members at least two weeks prior to the regular annual meeting of the association.

b. Submission of the amendment at a regular business meeting of the annual meeting of the association for consideration at the succeeding (next year's) annual meeting of the association.

Section 2—After meeting the requirement(s) of Section 1, the constitution may be amended at any regular or special meeting of the association or by a mail vote of the association. A favorable vote of two-thirds of the members present (if a quorum exists) is required. A mail vote shall require approval by a majority of the current membership. No mail vote shall be valid if received beyond thirty days after official notification.

BYLAWS

Article I—Membership Application and Dues

Section 1—Active membership may be obtained by virtue of completion of the application, contingent upon establishment of eligibility and payment of the annual dues. Dues shall be established by the membership and are payable to the secretary-treasurer upon notification. Delinquent members are those whose dues are one or more years in arrears, and they shall be dropped from the roles. Reinstatement is made upon payment of the current annual dues. A delinquent member may reestablish continuity of membership upon his payment of his arrearages at the current dues rate.

Section 2—Emeritus membership is obtained upon retirement, if qualified (see Constitution, Article III, Section 3). Emeritus members are exempt from dues.

Section 3—Affiliated society membership shall be awarded upon application by the society to the Executive Council and a two-thirds favorable vote by the membership at a regular business meeting at the annual meeting of the association. Dues shall be established by the membership and are payable to the secretary-treasurer and are payable upon notification.

Article II—Divisions

Section 1—Three divisions within the association are established in order to promote its activities and realize its objectives. The divisions are:

a. *Division of Body of Knowledge*, which includes interests such as the history of sport, comparative and international physical education, sociology of sport, motor learning, physiology of exercise, sport psychology, administrative theory, and similarly related areas.

b. *Division of Professional Preparation*, which includes interests such as teacher education, undergraduate and graduate programs in the broad field of physical education, and programs or curricula leading to the preparation of personnel for other types of services related to physical education.

c. *Division of Sport and Leisure*, which includes interests such as basic instruction, intramurals, sport clubs, campus physical recreation programs, and intercollegiate athletics.

Section 2—Additional divisions may be established upon: (1) receipt by the Executive Council of a petition indicating the purpose and need for such a division, said petition to include a minimum of 25 signatures of current members; (2) recommendation by the Executive Council; and (3) approval by a two-thirds vote of the membership at an annual meeting of the association.

Section 3—Divisions may be dissolved upon: (1) receipt by the Executive Council of a petition requesting such a dissolution, said petition to contain a minimum of 25 signatures of current members, (2) recommendation of the Executive Council, and (3) approval of the dissolution by a two-thirds vote of the membership at an annual meeting of the association.

In lieu of the receipt of such a petition, any division that has failed to provide a program for three successive annual meetings or whose programs have failed to attract an audience of at least five members for three successive annual meetings shall automatically be placed in review by the Executive Council.

Council recommendation shall be presented to and voted upon by the membership at a regular business meeting at an annual meeting of the association. Approval of the recommendation shall require a two-thirds vote.

Article III—Committees

Section 1—Committees shall be designated as president's committees, continuing committees, standing committees, and joint committees and are appointed by the president.

Section 2—President's committees are charged with specific tasks or assignments, the nature of which is such that they can reasonably be expected to be completed during the incumbent president's term of office.

Section 3—Continuing committees are those authorized by the membership and are assigned to those projects or problems that are specific in nature and are amenable to final resolution and or conclusions but must function beyond the term of office of the appointing president. Their appointment shall be approved by the Executive Council, and they shall continue to function until discharged by official action of the membership.

Section 4—Standing committees are those authorized by the membership at a regular business meeting or by mail vote and are approved by the Executive Council. They are assigned a specific task related to the ongoing functioning and purposes of the association and its programs. Examples include: Convention Program, Constitution, Finance, International Relations, Historical Records, Legislative, Membership, Necrology, Nominations, Operating Codes, Policies, Public Relations, Research, and Resolutions.

These committees follow a policy of rotating membership with no member to be appointed for a period to exceed three years. The number of members on a committee is prescribed by the Executive Council. Each committee shall have its own operating code, and, if none exists, the concerned committee shall prepare and submit one to the Operating Codes Committee and, in turn, to the Executive Council for approval.

Section 5—Joint committees concern themselves with specific tasks or problems and function in a cooperative relationship with one or more associations, organizations, or societies. They are authorized by the Executive Council and may have either a brief and terminal function or a continuing one.

Article IV—Publications

Section 1—The association shall publish or cooperate in the publication of: the *Proceedings* of the annual meeting, the *President's Newsletter*, and *Quest*. All members in good standing shall receive copies of these publications.

Section 2—The *Proceedings* is the official publication and contains a record of activities, selected papers read at the annual meeting, committee reports, the president's message, membership roll, and other official business of the association. The *Proceedings* shall be edited and published as soon as possible after each annual meeting.

Section 3—The *President's Newsletter* shall be published at the discretion of the president, but no less than semiannually. It includes committee assignments, messages, a synopsis of the program of the annual meeting, announcements, and such other matters as the president may elect to bring before the membership.

Section 4—*Quest* is a joint publication of the association and the National Association of Physical Education for College Women. Both associations appoint members to an editorial board that is charged with the responsibility for each semiannual issue. *Quest* contains articles that generally relate to a theme concerning physical education.

Section 5—The secretary-treasurer shall arrange for the publication and distribution of such other matters as the Executive Council may direct.

Article V—Finance

Section 1—Monies obtained by the association shall be allotted to (a) operating budget, (b) reserve fund, and (c) special projects as designated by the Executive Council.

Section 2—The operating budget shall consist of those funds deemed necessary by the Executive Council to meet the obligations of the association throughout the fiscal year, including those of the annual meeting.

Section 3—The reserve fund represents those monies that accumulate in excess of needs of the operating budget. The secretary-treasurer shall invest these sums upon recommendation of the Finance Committee and approval by the Executive Council. Such surplus and interests or dividends from invested monies shall accrue to a fund known as the Reserve Account. The Executive Council may authorize the withdrawal of funds from the Reserve Account for such use as it sees fit.

Section 4—The special projects fund is dedicated to those projects authorized by the membership that are not funded through the operating budget. A portion of each member's dues is allocated to this fund.

Section 5—The Finance Committee shall be responsible to the Executive Council and shall: (a) in cooperation with the secretary-treasurer, prepare and submit to the Executive Council a proposed annual budget; (b) make recommendations for the investment of surplus funds; (c) evaluate the fiscal policies of the association; (d) cooperate in the fiscal responsibility of the special projects fund.

Section 6—The fiscal year shall extend from September 1 through August 31.

Section 7—In the event of the dissolution of the association, all unencumbered funds will be forwarded to the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Washington, D.C.

Article VI—Affiliated Societies

Section 1—Affiliated societies may hold one meeting (i.e., one session) of their society in conjunction with the association's annual meeting. Requests shall be processed through and by the association's first vice president and must be received by him no later than the spring Executive Council meeting. Special consideration is extended to societies whose membership is restricted to a defined geographical area in order that they may meet when the association's annual meeting takes place within that society's geographical boundaries.

NCPEAM PRESIDENTS

YEAR	PRESIDENT
1897	Edward Hitchcock
1898	Jay W. Seaver
1899	Dudley A. Sargent
1900	William G. Anderson
1901	R. Tait McKenzie
1902	Paul C. Phillips
1903	Watson L. Savage
1904	R. Tait McKenzie
1905	George L. Meylan
1906	George L. Meylan
1907	Thomas A. Storey
1908	Thomas A. Storey
1909	R. Tait McKenzie
1910	Amos Alonzo Stagg
1911	Amos Alonzo Stagg
1912	Fred E. Leonard
1913	William A. Lambeth
1914	James A. Naismith
1915	Charles W. Savage
1916	Charles V P. Young
1917	Joseph E. Raycroft
1918	Joseph E. Raycroft
1919	Edwin Fauver
1920	Edwin Fauver
1921	Fred W. Luehring
1922	Edgar Fauver
1923	James H. McCurdy
1924	J. Herbert Nichols
1925	William H. Geer
1926	Dudley B. Reed
1927	Allison W. March
1928	Jesse F. Williams
1929	Albert I. Prettyman
1930	William R. LaPorte
1931	T. Nelson Metcalf
1932	Oliver F. Cutts
1933	George E. Little
1934	William L. Hughes
1935	Chester L. Brewer
1936	E. LeRoy Mercer
1937	Walter J. Livingston
1938	Harold S. Wood
1939	Lawrence C. Boles
1940	Harry A. Scott
1941	Oliver K. Cornwell
1942	E. Craig Davis
1943	Carl P. Schott
1944	Carl P. Schott
1945	Delbert Oberteuffer
1946	Allison Marsh
1947	Carl Nordly
1948	Lloyd Jones
1949	Louis Keller
1950	Glenn Howard
1951	Thomas McDonough
1952	Fred Holter
1953	Elmer Mitchell
1954	William Meredith
1955	Seward Staley
1956	Ernest Smith
1957	Arthur Daniels
1958	John H. Shaw
1959	C.O. Jackson
1960	Raymond Snyder
1961	J.W. Kistler
1962	Richard Jamerson
1963	Karl W. Bookwalter
1964	John E. Nixon
1965	Arthur Weston
1966	Richard J. Donnelly
1967	Louis E. Alley
1968	Charles Kovacic
1969	David O. Matthews
1970	Chalmer G. Hixson
1971	Deane E. Richardson
1972	David C. Bischoff
1973	Vernon S. Sprague
1974	Sheldon L. Fordham
1975	Burris F. Husman

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EMERITUS MEMBERS 1975

A

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CONROY, JOHN J., EdD
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Legend:

*Attended 1975 Convention
(1) Past President
(2) Past Secretary-Treasurer

*CURETON, THOMAS K., PhD
(1929, 1970)
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D

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ACTIVE MEMBERS 1975

(THROUGH MAY 15, 1975)

Legend:

*Attended 1975 Meeting
(1) Past President
(2) Past Secretary-Treasurer

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ACANFORA, GENNARO, MEd (1971)
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ADAMS, PAUL L., MA (1969)
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ADAMS, RICHARD, PhD (1964)
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Hattiesburg, Mississippi
ALLEN, ROBERT E., EdD (1969)
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(1)ALLEY, LOUIS EDWARD, PhD (1955)
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ALSOP, WILLIAM L., EdD (1970)
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AMUNDSON, THEODORE A., PhD (1975)
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ANDERSON, ERNEST W., MEd (1956)
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ANDERSON, EUGENE W., EdD (1961)
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Marshall, Minnesota
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ANSON, J. GREG (1975)
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ATTERBOM, HEMMING, PhD (1967)
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B

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BAER, CLARENCE, JR., MS (1968)
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Queens College of CUNY
Little Neck, New York
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*BAIR, WESLEY D., EdD (1964)
Southwest Missouri State College
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BAKER, BOYD B., EdD (1971)
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Tucson, Arizona
BAKER, JOHN A., EdD (1967)
SUNY
Buffalo, New York
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BARNEY, ROBERT K., PhD (1970)
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BARNHART, THOMAS C., (1975)
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BARR, DONALD E. (1975)
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BARROW, HAROLD M., PED (1950)
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BARTOLOME, CANDIDO C., MPE (1950)
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BATES, BARRY T., PhD (1972)
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BATTINELLI, THOMAS, EdD (1965)
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BILLINGS, ED, PED (1968)
Houston Baptist College
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BONDI, JAMES L. (1975)
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BOS, RONALD R. (1975)
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